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Goals for Education
CHALLENGE 2000

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SREB

Southern Regional Education Board

The SREB Commission for Educational Quality

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There need be no mystery about the quality of education in the year 2000. Education in the year 2000 depends upon our actions in each of the todays and tomorrows until the end of this century. What we do and do not do, not some uncontrollable chain of events, will determine the fate of education.

While "any road will do if you don't care where you are going," we do care where we are going in education. We should see that the educational reforms of the 1980s lead to significant improvements throughout the 1990s and into the twenty-first century. For this to happen we need goals for where we want to be in education and mileposts to indicate our progress in getting there. Where we *should* want to be, what we expect in the quality of our educational programs, has changed dramatically. Doing a bit better than last year is not good enough in a society where the terms "international" and "global" take on new, and very real, meanings daily.

SREB's Commission for Educational Quality has put forward twelve specific goals for education and "indicators of progress" toward reaching these goals. Certainly these twelve are not the only important goals. Priorities may differ from state to state. But if we are to instill public confidence and sustain the momentum for improving education, I believe that every state must set goals for education, measure progress in achieving them, report results to the public in clear terms, and make a strong case for the support necessary to be successful. That is SREB's aim in publishing and promoting *Goals for Education*.

CHALLENGE 2000

Winfred L. Godwin
President

Goals for Education

CHALLENGE 2000

Why is it important that states set educational goals? Nearly all SREB states are implementing new standards and programs to improve the quality of education. Since 1981 they have led the nation in doing so. Comprehensive improvement programs were approved in most SREB states while they were still being talked about in other parts of the country. The long-term results of these reforms will determine whether there is a better future with improved standards of living in SREB states.

But, few states appear to have set specific goals for results they expect these new educational standards and programs to produce. Educators and elected officials need to ask themselves and each other several questions:

- Have we shaped our educational reforms into a vision of what we expect to accomplish?
- Do we know with some certainty where we want our state's educational system to be by the year 2000?
- Do we have ways of knowing whether we are on track with our educational programs? Of knowing whether we are supporting them adequately?
- In short, does our state have specific educational goals and ways of knowing when we have successfully reached them or are making progress toward achieving them?

If state leaders ask these questions of themselves and others, and demand evidence to support answers, they may find that the answers are too often "no."

Why then are educational goals important? Simply put, **the citizens of any state are not likely to achieve more in education than they and their leaders expect and aim for.** Consider this. Between the mid-1970s and mid-1980s there was much emphasis on the importance of earning a high school diploma. But virtually no state had either reliable information about how many students were dropping out of school or a specific goal to increase the number and percentage of high school graduates. It is not surprising, therefore, that the percentage of young adults with a high school diploma changed by only one percent in 11 years. (Fortunately, that one percent was on the plus side as more black students completed high school.)

Significant improvements in education do not "just happen." They are planned, pursued, and evaluated. If the number of students graduating from high school increases appreciably or if there is a rise in the percentage of entering college students who are ready for college-level work, it will be because these matters are priorities.

Educational improvement in any state is a long-term proposition. Substantial and sustained public support is required. Setting and pursuing educational goals may be the best way to encourage and maintain this support. Attempting to rally support from the public with general claims that schools and colleges are working harder or doing better will not suffice. States without specific goals for the year 2000 may likely remember the 1980s "as the good old days in education." States with educational visions and goals specifically tied to these visions may remember the 1980s as the time they laid the groundwork for their continuing prosperity.

Educational goals should be concrete. They should be realistic, but present a challenge to reach beyond the present grasp. Goals should be measurable so that progress in meeting them can be checked. SREB states should seek to link their goals to national standards and benchmarks—especially for student learning and performance.

Goals will vary from state to state, but there will be many similarities. Goals should address the entire range of educational programs. Why? Because it is impossible to separate the question of the quality in a state's elementary and secondary schools and in its colleges. Goals should focus on student learning and on what it takes to produce satisfactory levels of student learning in schools and colleges.

Many SREB states face special problems in raising achievement and attainment to national levels. These states have disproportionate numbers of citizens from disadvantaged backgrounds, many of whom are blacks or Hispanics. Disparities in opportunities and outcomes are too prevalent in every state. Therefore, as states set goals for the education of the population in general, they should determine what these goals mean for minorities, create the special programs that may be needed, and track the degree of success for both majority and minority populations.

The need for higher levels of achievement for minorities is not simply a call for more basic skills instruction in the schools. The need to have more minorities participating in higher education is as great or even greater. Targets must be set for more minority students to attend college, to earn four-year degrees, and to pursue and earn graduate and first professional degrees. If we are to avoid drifting toward a two-tier society with one level well-educated, well off economically, and mostly white, and the other just the reverse, then minorities have to be represented in higher education to the same degree as they are in the schools.

THE YEAR 2000

We no longer view the year 2000 in some mystical fashion. The twenty-first century is just around the corner. We are much closer to the first day of the next century than to the day when the first step was taken on the moon. Dramatic changes are certain to occur in the remaining few years of this century. Who can forecast what research into artificial intelligence, superconductivity, and medical science will produce? But there are some relative certainties about the beginning of the twenty-first century.

By the year 2000 our nation's population will be "older." For the first time more than half of us will be over 35 years of age. Fewer of us will be under 25 years old. More will be over 65. As we move into the twenty-first century, this "aging of America" will have a profound effect on our social and governmental policies. More retirees will be relying on a relatively smaller work force. It may take more effort to gain support for public education because a smaller percentage of families will have school-age children.

By the year 2000 there will be more of us, but not a lot more. Half of the SREB states will grow as fast or faster than the nation—12 percent in 12 years—and half will grow at a slower rate.

By the year 2000 there will be more minority citizens in SREB states (blacks, Hispanics, and other minorities) and minority school children, but these increases will be dramatic in only a few states. If current trends prevail, minority students will continue to have lower levels of academic achievement, higher dropout rates, lower levels of literacy, and be less likely to enroll in college preparatory programs.

By the year 2000 there will be more youngsters in school in SREB states—about 10 percent more—but nearly half of this increase will be in three states (Florida, Texas, and Virginia). School enrollments in almost half of the SREB states may decline.

By the year 2000 there may be slightly fewer persons in college (5 percent or so fewer) if present trends continue. There will be one and a quarter million fewer traditional college-age young adults in the SREB states. Given present trends, black and Hispanic students will attend college at rates much less than what might be expected if enrollments matched the percentage of black and Hispanic young adults in the total population.

By the year 2000 SREB states may not have closed the gap between the region and the nation in the percentage of their citizens with college degrees. Compounding this troubling estimate is the continuing disparity in the rates at which black, Hispanic, and white students are earning college degrees.

By the year 2000 the labor force will contain more non-white citizens, more females, and more immigrants. Well over 50 percent of the increase in the labor force will be made up of black, Hispanic, and other minority group members—groups currently underprepared for the higher skilled jobs.

By the year 2000 ten million new jobs are likely to have been created in the SREB states. Over 80 percent of the ten million jobs may require a high school education and, more than ever before, jobs will require some postsecondary education. There will be a sharp decline in the share of jobs that can be filled with individuals who have less than a high school education. The pay for these jobs will be much less than for those requiring a high school diploma or some college. States are already encountering the real—not theoretical—problem of a job market that requires more education and a work force composed of groups who have not fared well in our educational systems. Simply put, it is not clear that our educational systems are on schedule to produce the persons needed for the jobs of the twenty-first century.

By the year 2000, goods-producing industries will experience almost no change in employment; service-producing industries will account for nearly all new growth. Our national economy, and thereby our state economies, will be increasingly interrelated with global economies. Manufacturing employment will decline nationally, and only increase slightly in the SREB states. A growing share of the jobs in manufacturing will be made up of managerial, engineering, and related jobs. In the SREB states, about 400,000 farm jobs will disappear.

SETTING GOALS FOR EDUCATION TO CHANGE THE FUTURE

Several trends are virtual certainties—the population will be older and more ethnically diverse, so will the labor force, and there will be higher educational requirements for jobs that will be increasingly in the service sector of the economy.

Other predictions are not certainties; they can be altered in the decade ahead. Our concern is with educational trends that, when projected to the year 2000, yield an unacceptable future. If current situations prevail in the year 2000, too few children will be ready for the first grade or will graduate from high school. Not enough minority students will complete high school and college, and too few citizens will have a college degree.

How can this unacceptable future be altered? By setting and reaching educational goals, states can change these trends and literally change their future.

EDUCATIONAL GOALS FOR SREB STATES

"If excellence means anything at all it is a universal concept, [we must] be measured against the same criteria of excellence which are applied everywhere." That bold claim was controversial when made by the Southern Regional Education Board nearly three decades ago. Many who heard it were skeptical. Most SREB states were behind the nation economically and educationally. Their leaders were encouraged that better times were ahead, but doing a bit better this year than last year seemed a more realistic goal than meeting national standards.

Today, there is wide agreement that SREB states should strive for national standards. And some, particularly governors, assert that international standards are more appropriate now that the marketplace is increasingly global.

If SREB states are indeed determined to meet or exceed national standards in education by the year 2000, what kinds of goals must they set and reach? And what actions or conditions—what "indicators" of progress—will signal to citizens, educators, and government leaders movement toward meeting long-range educational goals?

BY THE YEAR 2000—

All children will be ready for the first grade.

Indicators of progress toward having all first-graders ready to begin schooling include—

- Increasing the percentage of "at risk" children served by pre-school and kindergarten programs to 100 percent by the year 2000;
- Using readiness assessments for all children prior to their beginning the first grade and providing appropriate developmental programs to meet individual needs;
- Establishing programs that help those children who are unprepared to begin academic work in the first grade in 100 percent of the districts.

Today not all children are ready to begin the first grade. Too many never catch up. Unless additional steps are taken, possibly one-third of the approximately one million children projected to be entering the first grade will not be ready to do so in the year 2000. Several years ago South Carolina found that more than one-third of its entering first-graders were not prepared to begin academic work. Perhaps not coincidentally, more than one-third of all students dropped out before graduating from high school. Today three-fourths of South Carolina's entering first-graders are ready, and those who are not get additional special help.

Pre-school and kindergarten programs are a wise investment to develop mental, social, and physical skills, especially for children from disadvantaged homes. First, the needs of pre-school children should be determined using formal and informal assessments, such as teacher observations, tests, health appraisals, and checklists of students' readiness skills. Teachers must be prepared for these

pre-school programs, and more of them will be needed. Helping all children be ready for the first grade is not just a challenge for the educational system. The problems of "at risk" children and their parents are more than a school problem. Unless there is effective local coordination of health and social services linked to educational programs, all children will not be ready for the first grade in the year 2000.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

Student achievement for elementary and secondary students will be at national levels or higher.

Indicators of progress in raising student achievement to national levels, or higher, include—

- Establishing and publicizing specific student achievement goals by schools, districts, and states;
- Reporting of student achievement results by divisions such as quartiles—upper one-fourth, middle two-fourths, and lower one-fourth—to keep the focus on helping all students make progress;
- Reducing at the school, district, and state level the number of students whose achievement scores fall in the bottom one-fourth on national measures, and increasing the number of students who score in the higher categories;
- Raising steadily the percentages of students meeting academic standards set by schools, districts, and states at several grades throughout elementary and secondary schooling;
- Increasing the percentages of students meeting standards or making gains on national achievement tests (for example, raising to the national average or higher the percentage of students who read at the Adept level or write at the Adequate level on the National Assessment of Educational Progress);
- Narrowing by one-half the unacceptably large gaps in achievement of students from different racial and ethnic backgrounds (achievement should also be reported in ways that clearly show any existing disparities among students with different economic and geographic backgrounds so problems can be pinpointed);
- Increasing the percentage of high schools offering Advanced Placement courses for college credit to at least 60 percent and the percentage of students taking the Advanced Placement examinations to the national average or higher;
- Increasing the "passing" rate (score of 3 or above) on Advanced Placement examinations to the national average or higher.

It will be difficult for many states to achieve truly current national levels of student performance. Why is this so if nearly all states have student achievement scores that are already "at or above the national average" on many so-called

national tests? When the weaknesses of these tests are corrected or lessened—weaknesses that have led to results showing nearly all states at or above average—and the revised National Assessment of Educational Progress provides new state and national measures of student achievement, the national averages will be more accurate indicators of student achievement across the country.

In addition to these more challenging national standards, there is a special problem, not to be underestimated, in achieving the goal of national levels of student performance. Specifically, we should confront the fact that children from disadvantaged homes tend to have lower academic achievement and the numbers of these students are increasing. This fact, as well as continuing nationwide efforts to raise student achievement, means that many SREB states will face the difficult task of increasing achievement so more students will meet higher national standards. The challenge to the SREB states is similar to swimming upstream against a strong current—very difficult, but essential if we are to survive.

Texas, for example, is one of a very few states to set a goal for student achievement (national norms by the year 2000). By the year 2000, minority students will account for more than one-half of all elementary and secondary students in Texas. A disproportionate number of minority students will be from disadvantaged homes. Texas must take this fact into account, and deal with it, to raise student achievement to national norms. So must other states.

If student achievement goals are to be set and reached, then student achievement must be measured. More widespread use of technology will be needed—technology that offers new ways of measuring student achievement and provides almost instantaneous results to students and teachers to improve teaching and learning. No single existing indicator, test, or standard provides an adequate measure of student achievement. Information from nationally normed tests, the proposed state-by-state version of the National Assessment of Educational Progress, the American College Test, the Scholastic Aptitude Test, and Advanced Placement tests can be used to describe how well students are doing compared to national results. State basic skills tests, end-of-course tests, and high school graduation tests can help raise student achievement by pinpointing problem areas.

Focusing on basic skills will not be enough. The key to SREB states reaching national achievement levels will be to help more students move to the mid and upper ranges of skill levels that show development of abilities in reasoning and problem-solving. For high school students this means that the courses they take are very important. Simply stated, students generally know much more about subjects they have studied. For example, when time is spent on subjects such as science in elementary school, their priority in the curriculum is evident. States can, and are, requiring students to take more courses to earn a high school diploma. The much more difficult task, however, is to see that students learn what is necessary from these courses.

If our society is to flourish, our young people must know how our nation's democracy works, and appreciate that they must be constructively involved.

To prosper in an increasingly competitive international economy, they will need to know much more than at present about other nations—their cultures, geography, and languages. As members of a labor force they must acquire attitudes that generate gains in productivity and quality.

Focusing on just the things that can be easily measured will not be enough. Most of life is not spent in school or in the workplace. Education should open our lives to the role and value of the arts to us as individuals and to our society. We should not underestimate how creativity can be encouraged and fostered by the arts. Our educational systems are not the only shapers of beliefs, attitudes, and values, but they play a major role. Goal setting in these areas is not easy; the issues are complex and the options many, but a state that values the quality of life on an equal plane with the productivity of its workers will seek to set goals here as well.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

The school dropout rate will be reduced by one-half.

Indicators of progress toward reducing the school dropout rate by one-half from current levels include—

- Establishing a system to collect and report state dropout data by race and gender and by schools and districts according to a common definition;
- Developing statewide and local plans for reducing dropouts—plans that spell out what schools and governmental agencies will do and that provide incentives for making substantial progress;
- Providing funding to develop programs that identify and help at-risk students, beginning in early grades and continuing through high school completion;
- Reducing the number of chronically absent students by 25 percent and raising the overall student attendance rate to 95 percent, or higher;
- Increasing the percentage of students who complete high school programs, especially the percentage receiving high school diplomas (for example, 85 percent or more of the entering ninth-graders);
- Comparing student performance of high school graduates to comparable groups at the national level to maintain the integrity of the high school diploma.

If we could wave a magic wand over this year's first-graders it would surely be one that would ensure all of them a good high school education and the opportunity for more education beyond high school. But we know it does not work that way. Present trends show that too many of our youngsters will become adults without having completed high school and having earned a diploma. They will be left behind unless states more vigorously attack the problems of school dropouts and adult literacy. Currently, over 40 percent of those who do not complete high school programs earn an equivalency certificate through the General Educational Development (GED) program. While the GED is not the preferred option for younger persons, it is an alternative for adults who have left

high school. (Studies suggest that students earning a GED do not do as well in employment or in higher education as high school graduates.)

If one-third of a school's students were absent for several days due to a flu outbreak, an emergency would likely be declared. The school would close until the epidemic subsided. Yet for year after year we have graduated senior high school classes in which one-third, and sometimes more, of the original class was missing. And all too often we have accepted this fact as business-as-usual. The good news is not that there has been a dramatic upsurge in the high school graduation rate, but that educational and governmental leaders seem determined not to accept the present situation any longer.

No educational problem is being discussed more, but still, few states have adequate information about dropouts. Assuming that the estimated figures on school dropouts are even partially correct, the current determination to reduce the problem is well-founded.

Ten SREB states have dropout rates above the national average. In six of these, more than one-third of entering ninth-graders apparently do not graduate; black students are more likely to drop out than white students—twice as likely as white students in some districts; only about one-half of the Hispanic students in this country graduate from high school; and in total numbers, more white students drop out of school each year than do either black or Hispanic students.

If schools could solve the dropout problem by themselves, they would have done so. The fact that they have not may say many things. It certainly says that the dropout problem is bigger than the schools, and far bigger than a special program set aside in one "corner" of the school. Schools are the most important group in reducing dropouts. But local and state leaders may have to insist on—and sometimes require—coordination of services with other governmental agencies that deal with children and families as well as other groups—business and industry, for example. For, if these groups are not part of the dropout reduction efforts, the efforts are likely to fail.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

90 percent of adults will have a high school diploma or equivalency.

Indicators of progress toward increasing the percentage of adults age 25 and over with a high school diploma or equivalency include—

- Increasing to 50 percent or higher the percentage of school dropouts who enroll in and complete the General Educational Development program—for black young adults, this will mean doubling the number who complete the program after enrolling;
- Using assessments results, such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress Literacy Assessment, with young adults to determine the skills and knowledge that are being gained (or not gained);
- Increasing dramatically the number of employees participating in business-sponsored "learn and earn" programs to complete a high school equivalency.

Even if states reduce the dropout rate by one-half, there will be over 10 million adults in the SREB region who have not completed high school in the year 2000.

While many young adults earn an equivalency certificate, few adults over the age of 40 seek to earn a GED. Therefore, states must concentrate most of their efforts on younger adults, more of whom must be motivated to earn a GED. For example, only two of ten black citizens who enroll in a GED program complete it. Business leaders, in small and large companies, may play a major role with incentives or requirements that employees "learn and earn." Workplace literacy partnerships sponsored by business, education, and government may hold the most promise for motivating young adults.

Measuring the attainment and achievement levels of adults at around the age of 25 can show how young adults in the region are faring compared to the nation. The 1986 National Assessment of Educational Progress Profile of Young Adults revealed that the country does have a literacy problem among young adults, not an "illiteracy" problem—"95 percent can read and understand the printed word, but in terms of tomorrow's need there is cause for concern: Only a small percentage can understand complex material."

BY THE YEAR 2000—

4 of every 5 students entering college will be ready to begin college-level work.

Indicators of progress in preparing more students to be ready for college-level work include—

- Establishing standards that include a core of required academic high school courses for admission into 4-year colleges and universities;
- Increasing the percentage of students taking algebra 1 by grade 10, at least to the percentage of graduates who enter postsecondary programs (with special emphasis on getting more minority students to complete algebra);
- Increasing the percentage of high school students enrolled in an academic or college preparatory high school track to equal or exceed the percentage of students going on to academic postsecondary programs;
- Establishing in every institution of higher education appropriate standards for beginning college-level study and assessments to determine if students are prepared to begin this degree-credit study;
- Establishing policies that require successful completion of non-credit remedial education courses for students not meeting degree-credit standards and continuous evaluations of the effectiveness of remedial education programs for students from different backgrounds and levels of preparation for college.

SREB states will continue to lag behind the nation in college enrollment and completion unless recent actions by schools and colleges are continued and new efforts are put into place. Raising high school graduation standards, special high

school diplomas for college-bound students, and admission standards that require a solid academic core of subjects are actions that have been taken by SREB states in the 1980s. End-of-course testing for high school courses and the use of college placement tests to provide high school students with information on meeting standards for college are promising, but are underway in only a few SREB states. While some colleges and universities are providing high schools with limited information on student performance during the freshman year, additional joint cooperation by schools and colleges is needed to develop more specific and useful information so that high schools can improve counseling and instruction. A noteworthy school-college effort is the SREB/Kenan project in which colleges and schools begin in the eighth grade to encourage black students to prepare for college. The project provides students with support and counseling to take, and succeed in, needed high school courses. Faculty in schools and colleges should work jointly to develop high school curricula that are meaningful and provide students with the necessary skills to enter a postsecondary academic or vocational program.

The definition by colleges and universities of what is meant by college-level work will ensure that access to higher education is to quality programs—necessary if higher education is to be a significant economic and social force. Remedial education in colleges and universities is now needed by about one-third of the students in states that have collegiate placement standards. If states are to increase the access to quality collegiate education, especially for minorities and adult citizens, colleges must offer some remedial education for years to come. But it is reasonable to expect that in future years the school improvement efforts and college actions will mean fewer first-time college students who will need remedial education. The remedial education programs that are provided by colleges should be more carefully evaluated than are most such programs today, or the support for them is likely to drop sharply.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

Significant gains will be achieved in the mathematics, sciences, and communications competencies of vocational education students.

Indicators of progress in improving basic competencies of students who complete secondary vocational education programs include—

- Raising the basic reading, mathematics, and science competencies of students who complete secondary vocational education programs to national averages or higher as measured by programs such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (for example, increase the percentage of students reading at the Adept or higher level on the National Assessment or demonstrating the mathematics skills to solve moderately complex procedures);
- Establishing more precise, demanding, and measurable basic competency, placement, and technical objectives for vocational students;

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- Establishing targets for the percentage of students who complete vocational programs and are successfully placed in related jobs, the military, or pursue further education (for example, a state target of 80 percent or more may be a desirable goal);
 - Increasing to the national average (now 50 percent) the percentage of students who complete three or more units of vocational education programs and continue their education within one year after high school graduation;
 - Doubling the percentage of vocational education students who take one or more college preparatory mathematics courses, one or more college preparatory science courses, or courses specially designed to teach similar content through an applied process;
 - Evaluating and revising the ways that vocational education teachers are prepared, licensed, and updated, with the emphasis on improving their academic competencies and their skills for teaching applied courses.

Basic academic competencies in communication, computation, and applied sciences are fundamental to preparing young people for further learning, as well as for immediate employment upon high school graduation. Vocational education programs that place a high priority on developing basic academic skills can help produce high school graduates with the necessary skills for further learning—on the job or in formal education. There are too few of these programs today. Students in vocational education programs are more likely to have below average scores on basic competency measures than are students in the general or college preparatory curriculum. Vocational education students take on average only three fewer academic courses than do other high school students. However, the academic courses they do take are likely to be in the general curriculum, not in the college preparatory curriculum, and provide no in-depth study of any subjects.

Steps are being taken to raise the basic competencies of vocational education students by increasing the percentage who take higher level mathematics and science courses. Thirteen states in an SREB consortium are testing at more than 30 pilot sites new vocational programs that make high level communication, mathematics, and science instruction an important part of vocational studies. The SREB-Vocational Education pilot sites will: prescribe for each student a specific program of study that includes higher level mathematics and science courses; develop new ways to teach higher level academic skills through applied courses, provide staff development for teachers; and increase the amount of time vocational teachers devote to teaching basic competencies. These new programs will strengthen the ties between academic and vocational instruction to expand students' opportunities for employment and postsecondary education.

Similarly, additional efforts are needed to assure that vocational teachers spend more time teaching related basic competencies in an occupational context. Students in vocational classes spend 60 percent of their time using basic skills—

reading, speaking, listening, writing, and mathematics. However, today vocational teachers on average spend only about three percent of their time explicitly teaching basic competencies. More emphasis on teaching basic competencies in vocational instruction and external assessments of competency can help states ensure that vocational education students meet business- and industry-established occupational and basic competency standards.

Nationally, about 50 percent of the high school students who take at least three units of vocational education continue their education within one year after high school graduation. In no SREB state do vocational students continue their education at this rate. More vocational students will need further study after high school if states are to have citizens who can compete for and succeed in the jobs of the twenty-first century.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

The percentage of adults who have attended college or earned two-year, four-year, and graduate degrees will be at the national averages or higher.

Indicators of progress to increase levels of collegiate education in the SREB region include—

- Narrowing steadily the gaps among citizens of different races in their college attendance and graduation rates (for example, increasing the college attendance rates for black and Hispanic students by 30 percent may be a state goal);
- Increasing to national averages or higher the rates at which new high school graduates and adults enroll in higher education (for example, increasing the overall college participation rate by 20 percent by the year 2000 may be a goal for many states);
- Increasing to the national averages or higher the percentage of students who each year earn two-year, four-year, and graduate degrees (for example, many states will need a 20 percent increase by the beginning of the next century);
- Increasing the completion rate in two-year associate degree programs above the current average of 20 percent for students entering these programs;
- Increasing the percentage of two-year college students who go on to attend senior institutions, currently about 20 percent, (states will need effective transfer agreements between two-year and four-year institutions and programs to raise the numbers of minority students who transfer to senior institutions);
- Setting quantitative and qualitative targets for graduate enrollments, with consideration of the proportion of minorities and women enrolled, and creating conditions for growth in selected fields.

Citizens of SREB states should have the same level of collegiate education as U.S. citizens generally. Until this is achieved, a state is likely to have great difficulty

competing successfully in national and international markets. Also, it is unlikely that its citizens can enjoy the same level of cultural and social benefits that accrue in those states having high percentages of college-educated citizens.

In 1950 only one of sixteen citizens in the SREB region had earned a college degree, and only one of seven had attended college at all. Today one of seven of all adults over the age of 25 has a baccalaureate degree or higher, and nearly one of three has attended college.

Dramatic progress? Yes. So dramatic one might forget that making a college education available to all who can benefit from it is still a relatively new, almost uniquely American idea. Just how new an idea is shown by the fact that in many SREB states more than half of this year's graduates are the first members of their families to earn a college degree.

By all valid measures, the SREB region continues to trail the nation in the levels of collegiate education for all of its citizens—including white, black, and Hispanic. Furthermore, based on current population and college enrollment patterns, the collegiate education gap between the SREB region and the nation may be just as large by the year 2000. The challenge, therefore, is for states to have a greater share of their citizens prepared for college, enrolled in college, and graduated.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

The quality and effectiveness of all colleges and universities will be regularly assessed, with particular emphasis on the performance of undergraduate students.

Indicators of progress and targets for assessing quality and effectiveness can be developed by each state to reflect its own needs and aspirations, but each state should consider—

- Establishing standards for students to successfully complete remedial/developmental courses; all institutions will adopt these standards or more rigorous ones;
- Requiring institutional goals and standards for the proportion of students successfully passing state and national examinations for licensure or certification;
- Insisting that each institution evaluate the effectiveness of its core curriculum in providing a sound general education for students during the first two years of college;
- Insisting that every institution or system of institutions establish graduation and retention goals—with special attention to minority and disadvantaged students;
- Establishing indicators and achievement targets for graduate programs and state investments in research and development efforts.

Improving access alone is not enough; the access must be to quality educational programs. Our nation's views about quality will undoubtedly change between now and the year 2000, reflecting the increased knowledge demands of the twenty-first century and the continuing use of international standards to measure where we are.

Each state should spell out the kinds of assessment systems it requires. These assessment systems should take into account the diversity and differences in mission and scope represented in a state's colleges. At the same time the state has a responsibility, indeed an obligation, to assert certain minimum expectations for all colleges and universities, on the one hand, and, on the other, to provide ways to identify and reward superlative performance.

Assessment systems should place heavy, but not exclusive, emphasis on student learning and performance outcomes. SREB has consistently supported this emphasis and the national organization of State Higher Education Executive Officers has endorsed a general program for assessing institutional effectiveness.

Among the sure bets for the year 2000, and beyond, is the need to generate new ideas in science and technology and to convert knowledge to new products and services. To do that, graduate programs, particularly those in the sciences, engineering, and mathematics, must be strong. The need for improvement in the pre-school and K-12 programs and undergraduate education notwithstanding, we cannot leave out of the equation the need for higher quality at the graduate level.

State systems for assessing institutional effectiveness should make the goals of the institutions widely known and report to the public the progress made in achieving these goals.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

All institutions that prepare teachers will have effective teacher education programs that place primary emphasis on the knowledge and performance of graduates.

Indicators of progress toward effective teacher education programs that emphasize knowledge and performance of graduates include—

- Adopting as state policy a continuing state-level emphasis on improving teacher preparation programs that includes college and university presidents and the arts and sciences and education faculty of all colleges and universities in periodic examination of teacher preparation programs;
- Instituting teacher licensure and program approval standards based primarily on knowledge and performance of graduates;
- Evaluating different approaches to prepare teachers, such as alternative certification, four-year undergraduate, and extended programs, based primarily on performance of graduates and of their students;

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- Reducing by one-half the percentage of graduates not meeting initial teacher licensure standards;
 - Increasing threefold the number of minorities graduating from programs to prepare teachers—this means an annual increase of approximately 20 percent each year to the year 2000;
 - Improving the performance of beginning and veteran teachers according to assessments of principals and veteran teachers;
 - Maintaining or exceeding the national average in the proportion of teachers qualifying for certification compared to the number who apply when national board certification is established.

Teachers should be able to help all students learn, and they should be accountable for results. Colleges and universities are more important in helping teachers be successful than is evident from the current level of top administrative and faculty interest in programs to prepare teachers on most campuses. As schools focus more on student learning, school accountability, and school-site management, with more decision making by teachers, principals, and parents, colleges and universities should likewise rethink their roles. College and university programs to prepare teachers should provide solid grounding in liberal arts, depth of study in a discipline, and a central core of education courses based on the best research. With these tools teachers can make better decisions about teaching and instruction. Experiences in the schools for prospective teachers should be joint school-college efforts with funding provided accordingly. States will see more school-college projects—and more effective ones—if collegiate funding is not based overwhelmingly on enrollment and if colleges are more flexible about faculty pay and promotion policies to reward cooperative efforts with schools.

More minority teachers are needed, but there is not enough evidence that states are seeking to reverse the declining number of minority teachers at a time when minority students are increasing. The trends show clearly that incentives for prospective teachers and institutions will be required if there is to be any significant increase in the numbers of minority teacher education graduates. Similarly, too few teachers are prepared to help “at risk” students learn or to teach in urban settings. Attracting and preparing persons to teach, especially in areas such as science, mathematics, and special education, continues to be a concern. Many SREB states are recruiting large numbers of teachers from other states (Florida, for example, reports about 45 to 50 percent of newly hired teachers come from out of state).

State mandates alone are not sufficient to prompt campus faculty and administrators to make substantive curricular changes. Successful change in what and how future teachers are taught requires involvement by an institution’s top-level faculty and administrative leaders. Change will take time, and it will involve conflict. North Carolina and Virginia are in the midst of state-mandated changes to require an undergraduate liberal arts major for all teachers within four-year

programs. Texas and Tennessee have similar initiatives. Creative academic leaders are using the process as an opportunity to rethink programs and involve collegiate arts and sciences and education faculty along with teachers and administrators from schools. Because policy decisions go beyond campuses and affect quality, cost, effectiveness, and supply of teachers, statewide efforts should provide general direction but call for campuses to develop the changes.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

All states and localities will have schools with improved performance and productivity demonstrated by results.

Indicators of progress toward improved performance and productivity of schools include—

- Establishing school standards and rewards based primarily on school outcomes, such as student achievement, attendance, and assessments of students' readiness for postsecondary education and employment;
- Focusing on school-site results and rewarding schools for outcomes;
- Preparing school board members, superintendents, principals, and teachers to establish goals and operate results-oriented accountability systems;
- Supporting programs in all districts that help principals and teachers increase the involvement of parents and the community in each school;
- Increasing by 100 percent school-business partnerships.

State school board, local school board, and individual school goals are often not clearly linked with well-defined roles for each. By using performance and productivity as major criteria in establishing goals and measuring progress, states, districts, and schools can become more effective. State and local accountability systems that focus on results allow flexibility in the ways for districts and schools to produce these results.

The school is the site for improving education. Successful school-based management will require information on student, teacher, and school performance to ensure that goals are met. Local school-based councils jointly involving teachers, principals, parents, business and community leaders will be needed. Training will be required for all—superintendents, principals, school boards, and teachers—to develop goals, focus on results, and implement new programs. High-performing schools might be encouraged by less regulation at state and local levels. Increasing the use of school-site management that focuses on outcomes allows more school-level decision making.

School principals often are not selected for their instructional leadership skills or prepared to help lead instructional change and provide the momentum and atmosphere for growth among teachers and students. This is not necessarily their fault. For years states have certified persons to be principals if they

merely accumulated a series of college courses. The courses did not have to be linked to the knowledge and skills associated with effective school principals. This whole process is beginning to change in many states as certification, selection, evaluation, and rewards for principals now focus more on performance.

Strong school/community ties are vital. Increasingly, metropolitan and suburban area teachers and principals often are not a part of a traditional "school community." This situation requires special efforts on their parts to build community support. Teachers and principals now face much different parental situations—large numbers of families are headed by only one parent or both parents are employed full-time. It is more difficult now, and more important than ever, to involve many of these parents in the schooling of their children. Simple public relations schemes or twice a year back-to-school nights are not sufficient. Demonstrating that the community's well-being is in fact linked to education can serve to stimulate more business/school efforts.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

Salaries for teachers and faculty will be competitive in the marketplace, will reach important benchmarks, and will be linked to performance measures and standards.

Indicators of progress toward competitive teacher and faculty salaries include—

- Agreeing at the state level on appropriate salary goals for teachers and faculty and on a schedule for meeting these goals;
- Providing pay plans for teachers and faculty that reward outstanding performance, expanded responsibilities, or expertise in critical areas (for example, allocation of a set percentage of salary funds to be awarded for performance, expanded responsibilities, or to persons in critical shortage fields);
- Establishing a system to inform the governor, legislators, and citizens about the present and projected supply and demand for teachers and faculty and the progress made in achieving compensation goals for them;
- Conducting periodic reviews of the areas of expertise, gender, and race of persons who are attracted to teacher education programs, who graduate, and who are employed as beginning teachers (such reviews should help guide policies about adequate compensation);
- Increasing numbers of teachers and faculty with higher performance evaluations who choose to remain in the classroom.

Since 1981 more than half of the 15 SREB states have increased teachers' salaries at the national rate. Never before in this century has that happened.

Increased salaries make a highly visible and symbolic statement about the intent and determination of states to improve educational quality. But increasing salaries for teachers and faculty is a "big ticket" budget item for states and local-

ities. For example, a 5 percent pay raise for teachers and faculty in Florida requires nearly \$200 million. For the entire SREB region, a 5 percent raise requires more than one and a quarter billion new dollars. And a 5 percent raise marks no great gain in a given state as compared to salaries in the private sector or to those for teachers and faculty in other states. In many states significant annual pay raises for several years may be needed to reach an adequate level of compensation.

Most states need more systematic ways of setting benchmarks for adequate compensation for teachers and faculty. States may arrive at different definitions of adequate compensation. For faculty, states may decide that salaries must be competitive with those for faculty at similar institutions in other states or with regional or national benchmarks.

For teachers, states may determine that compensation must be competitive with selected occupations or with compensation of teachers in nearby states or in the nation at large. Salaries for teaching positions in shortage areas may have to reflect the market realities and be higher to attract persons to these positions. State and district school leaders should be sure that hiring and licensure practices promote, not hinder, an open market. In developing benchmarks, leaders should face squarely two questions:

- Are sufficient numbers of college graduates with average or above grades and appropriate credentials being attracted to teaching?
- Are most of the teachers who are identified as the most effective in evaluations remaining in the classroom for more than a few years?

When answers to both questions are "yes," then states can claim that compensation and working conditions for teachers are adequate.

There is substantial evidence that public leaders see increased salaries as a two-way street, and one side of the street is performance and accountability. For teachers' salaries this is particularly evident. In general, the SREB states that have raised teachers' salaries the most in the 1980s have linked higher pay to increased standards and performance. Career ladder and other pay-for-performance programs are one of the most obvious links, but there are also new standards for certification, higher standards to enter teacher preparation programs, internship and beginning teacher programs, more and better classroom evaluations, and more frequent and rigorous re-certification.

Collegiate faculty are generally assumed to be in a situation where merit evaluations and peer judgment play a major role in determining promotions and salary increases. Faculty in SREB states have not been subject to the same call from public leaders for increased accountability, and since 1981, in 12 of 15 SREB states their pay increases—at least the percentage of increases—have been lower than those for teachers.

BY THE YEAR 2000—

States will maintain or increase the proportion of state tax dollars for schools and colleges while emphasizing funding aimed at raising quality and productivity.

Indicators of progress toward maintaining or increasing the proportion of state funding for schools and colleges while emphasizing funding aimed at raising quality and productivity include—

- Agreeing at the state level on funding plans for schools and colleges that emphasize raising quality and productivity (for example, state, campus, and district leaders could earmark a specified budget percentage for special incentive awards for quality improvement);
- Providing annual financial statements to governors, legislators, and citizens on the state's success in implementing funding plans for education (statements should include "constant dollar" and percentage measures that communicate clearly);
- Evaluating the effectiveness of selected school and collegiate programs and linking the results to funding decisions;
- Establishing a state competitive grant process that assigns dollars where they will have the biggest impact on promoting specific initiatives (for example, university basic and applied research, effective school remediation programs, and dropout prevention programs).

SREB states unquestionably led the educational reform movement that began in the early 1980s. New programs, higher standards, and proposals to improve existing programs were the norm in most SREB states by 1984. Not all, but most of these programs cost more money. No state passed a comprehensive educational improvement act without approving a companion funding bill to begin the new plan. In the 1980s schools' budgets have generally fared better than those for colleges. For example, the percentage and absolute increases in teachers' salaries in most SREB states have been greater than those for collegiate faculty.

States with new educational improvement programs increased the share of state and local dollars going to education. Some states did this by raising taxes, others by earmarking for education a larger share of tax dollars from economic growth. In many states more than 100 million new dollars were designated for education in the first year of the new programs, with much of this going for higher salaries. But the litmus test for education's priority standing occurs in the state budget process every time the legislature meets.

In the SREB region a change of only one percent in how state tax dollars are spent means a shift of \$750 million. State budgets are a bit like aircraft carriers. They are not given to sudden changes in direction, but they can, and do, change. Higher education, for example, receives a smaller share of the budgets in 12 of the 15 SREB states than it did earlier in the 1980s. If higher education in each of

the SREB states were at its highest 1980s priority level, \$600 million more would be appropriated annually—enough to move faculty salaries in the region to the national average or higher. For an individual state, the real test of the resolve of its leaders comes in making the dollars available to bolster education. In Georgia, for example, the year after passage of the Quality Basic Education Act, the governor recommended that nearly two of every three new state tax dollars go to education. Mississippi took similar action in 1988 to dramatically raise the state's support of its schools and universities.

Two very basic facts are important for SREB states to keep in mind in judging their commitment to improving education. First, many new educational improvement efforts are underway and almost all are additions to existing state efforts. Second, SREB states have trailed the nation in several measures of financial investment in education. Therefore, it is difficult to imagine that in the next several years an SREB state committed to educational improvement could spend a smaller share of its budget for education. Simply stated, given the economic realities, it is unlikely that states can spend proportionately less to do more in education.

But it is also unlikely that state officials will continue to support exceptional funding increases for schools and colleges unless this funding is linked to raising quality and productivity. Funding trends in higher education already show this. New dollars for higher education in the 1980s, other than those for faculty salary increases which have been relatively modest in most SREB states, are going for specific purposes—primarily for centers of excellence, endowed chairs, targeted research, and instructional equipment. A similar trend is emerging for the schools. Teacher salary increases have accounted for much of their new funding, with most other new dollars earmarked for teacher and school incentives, dropout prevention, and other specific efforts.

The success of our nation's educational system is like that of the nation's economy—they both depend upon public confidence. When the public's confidence in the economy is high, consumer purchases and business investment plans reflect this confidence. When the public's confidence in its educational system is strong, this confidence should be shown in financial support for education.



CHALLENGING THE FUTURE

Will we challenge the future? Will we challenge trends for the year 2000 that forecast shortfalls in educational attainment and quality of education and therefore unacceptable standards of living? Will we set goals for education, work to achieve them, and alter the future?

Southern Regional Education Board states have shown an unusual willingness to try new ideas to improve education. They have demonstrated the capability of making new investments in education—investments intended to achieve results. Since 1981 there have been many results that reflect substantial gains in education. Yet, to be consistently successful in national and international arenas, much remains to be done. In meeting this challenge, past trends and future demographics are working against many states. This has not deterred SREB states in the 1980s. In fact, it may have increased the resolve of state leaders to do more to improve education and to do it more quickly. And they have succeeded.

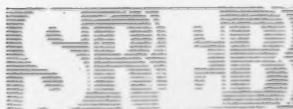
The twelve recommended goals in this document are intended to add to that resolve. They are intended to encourage an even deeper and more sustained commitment to educational improvement from pre-school through graduate school.

Goals for Education

CHALLENGE 2000

REACHING THE GOAL OF READINESS FOR SCHOOL

592 Tenth Street, N.W. • Atlanta, Georgia 30318-5790 • 1989 • \$5.00



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FOREWORD

States should strive for national, and increasingly international, standards in education. There is wide agreement among state leaders about this. All Southern Regional Education Board states have implemented educational reforms and new standards. The long-term results of these changes will determine whether there is a better future, with improved standards of living, for the citizens of this region.

But what results are expected from the new educational standards and programs?

- Have state leaders shaped the educational reforms into a vision of what they expect to accomplish?
- Do educators and government officials have ways of knowing whether they are on track with the educational programs? Of knowing whether they are supporting them adequately?

States that set educational goals will need to know what actions or results—what indicators of progress—will signal to citizens, educators, and government leaders that they are moving toward or reaching those goals. This report is one in a series presenting information about the “indicators of progress” for each goal in SREB’s report, *Goals for Education: Challenge 2000*. The first group also includes reports that deal with college readiness and state funding for schools and colleges. Reports looking at other goals and related indicators will appear in the future.

SREB has suggested 12 goals and specific “indicators of progress” for each. These are not the only important goals or indicators. As priorities differ, so will goals and indicators. Each of these three reports in the current series provides information on issues related to a specific goal and the set of indicators to track progress.

In this particular report, information is presented that pertains to the goal of having all children ready for the first grade. “School readiness,” or providing programs so that all students will be ready to begin formal schooling, is of growing interest among educators and governmental leaders. Preparing children for school involves more than educational issues; health and social concerns for youngsters are a major part of school readiness.

This particular report focuses on one specific part of the effort—state-funded educational programs for 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children in the SREB states. Information about early childhood education issues and programs is presented. Among the conclusions from SREB’s work is that too few states have developed or supported systems which provide adequate information about early childhood efforts. In some cases, even the basic information on how many children are being served is not available. State departments of education in the SREB states have provided and/or verified the factual information in this report. We appreciate their cooperation and assistance.

Winfred L. Godwin, President
Southern Regional Education Board

BY THE YEAR 2000—

All children will be ready for the first grade.

Goals for Education

CHALLENGE 2000

- Students with higher achievement in elementary and high school
- Fewer school dropouts
- High school graduates who are better qualified to enter the job market
- More students who attend and complete college

These are the measures of success and the kinds of long-term educational results that states are seeking when they invest in early childhood programs. All of these results are specific goals of SREB's *Goals for Education*.

Extraordinary steps will be required to achieve these results in many states in the region. In several SREB states at least one-third of the students are "disadvantaged," that is, they come from families where income is below the federally defined poverty level. Scores on college entrance tests and college attendance rates are comparatively low. Dropout rates are high.

Today, too many children are not ready to do first-grade work. These children fall perilously behind. They frequently have to repeat the first, second, or third grade. By the third grade, many of these youngsters are already in danger of becoming a school dropout; far too many do not graduate from high school; and few enter college. "School readiness" programs can help more children enter first grade with social, mental, and physical skills to begin academic work. Now, only about one-third of four-year-old children from families with incomes of less than \$10,000 are enrolled in pre-kindergarten programs. Contrast that with the two-thirds of four-year-olds from families earning \$35,000 a year or more who have the advantage of preschool training.

Several recent national reports, including those of the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Governors' Association, the National

Association of State Boards of Education, and the Bank Street College of Education, have reported on the increasing need for preschool programs. The Council of Chief State School Officers called for guaranteeing an opportunity for publicly-funded programs for "at risk" four-year-olds. The National Association of State Boards of Education recommended that early childhood units be established in elementary schools to work with children aged four to eight.

The development and expansion of preschool programs have been based on research that documents the short-term and the long-term effects of quality preschool education for children from low-income families. Studies of children who attended different preschool programs found fewer children were placed in special education classes; children did not repeat grades or drop out of school as often; and student achievement in early years was improved.

While longer-term studies are not as numerous, results are similar. A comprehensive study of 19-year-olds showed lower arrest rates and fewer teenage pregnancies, and higher postsecondary enrollments and better employment for those who had attended a particular preschool program. Another study of young adults who had participated in a comprehensive preschool program in the 1960s found higher rates for high school graduation and employment. The young adults were one-third more likely to have had postsecondary education.

A recent follow-up of children who participated in a home-based parent and child program in West Virginia in the early Seventies indicates that fewer children were retained in the first grade and more graduated from high school than would have been expected. Researchers stress that these are demonstrated effects of *quality* programs—ones with low child/staff ratios, an appropriate curriculum, and teachers with appropriate education and training. Merely offering a program is no guarantee of later differences for children.

Access to public kindergarten is now universal across the SREB states. Fifteen years ago, just five SREB states (Florida, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, and West Virginia) provided public kindergarten for all who wanted to attend; no SREB state required it. Florida was the first state in the nation to require kindergarten attendance (1982). Now, kindergarten attendance is mandatory before entrance to first grade in six SREB states.

During the 1980s, and especially over the last five years, public schools have assumed a greater role in programs for pre-kindergarten children.

SREB states use a variety of delivery systems for pre-kindergarten programs. In some states, the focus is on programs through public schools; others are developing home-based programs. In some cases, efforts are directed to improving parents' educational levels as well as helping children.

Twenty-three states nationally and nine SREB states have established state-funded educational programs for some 3- and 4-year-old children. These programs are generally targeted for "at risk" students, and in Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana,

Maryland, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Texas are offered through public schools. (Kentucky's Parent and Child Education Program [PACE] is a joint program for pre-kindergarten children and parents.) West Virginia and Alabama fund programs for a limited number of children. Virginia has approved a plan to establish state-funded programs and has established a state agency to coordinate efforts.

Proposals have been made in Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee to establish or enlarge state-funded efforts. Other state-sponsored programs use federal funding. The Arkansas Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) is designed for instruction of young children in the home by parents. West Virginia and Mississippi have started similar efforts.

A regional project, funded by the Kenan Foundation and patterned after the Kentucky PACE program, which was demonstrated during 1988-89 at several sites in Kentucky and North Carolina, involves joint efforts by school districts and community colleges.

WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO BE "READY" FOR THE FIRST GRADE?

The first grade has historically been the beginning of schooling. This has changed dramatically. Most children begin formal education in kindergarten and increasingly at the age of 4. Early education is now thought of as spanning ages 4 through 8. It may now be more difficult for states to define readiness for the first grade. Definitions may vary from state to state. In some states academic work may begin in kindergarten. Appropriate curricula for 3-, 4-, 5-, or 6-year-olds will need to be outlined. Only then can assessments be developed to determine what it means for a child to be "ready" for the first grade.

Early childhood education is on the agenda of educators and government officials around the nation. Some current and proposed policies directed to determining children's readiness for school are controversial. Much of the controversy has centered on the use of written tests for kin-

dergarten children. The debate is whether to use a test to determine if a child is to remain in kindergarten, or go to first grade or to a "transitional" first grade.

Most early childhood educators recommend a more individualized approach using several sources of information that may include, as one part, a set of test or assessment results. Mississippi and Georgia have recently moved to a more individualized approach using multiple assessments to determine readiness for first grade as opposed to using one written test. North Carolina and Texas no longer test first-grade students as part of their statewide testing program.

Providing the right program for an individual child depends on assessing each child's needs, developing appropriate programs for the child, and determining whether the child is ready to be-

gin academic work in the first grade. The National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) Task Force on Early Childhood Education reports that "the most important consideration in evaluating and using standardized tests is the utility criterion—that is, the purpose of testing must be to improve services for children. . . ."

Readiness assessments at first grade can provide information about effectiveness of pre-kinder-

garten and kindergarten programs or how many students are prepared. The NASBE report suggests that while schools and programs need to be held accountable, procedures and programs should not "stigmatize" children. A child who is labeled a "failure" in school at age six, and who knows it, could well be a school dropout by age sixteen, or sooner.

HOW CAN STATES MEASURE THEIR PROGRESS TOWARD GETTING ALL STUDENTS "READY" FOR THE FIRST GRADE?

States should track indicators of progress in providing programs that help all children be ready with social, mental, and physical skills to begin academic work in the first grade. Three major areas for measuring progress are:

- Availability of Programs
- Quality of Programs
- Results for Children

"Progress" means "results." Results for children who have attended school readiness programs, however, are not easy to measure. Long-term results cannot be measured on a short-term basis. States should assess results by using a number of measures, but they should also insist that making quality programs *available* is likely to produce positive results.

What works in programs for 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children? There is general agreement about the importance of an appropriate curriculum, well-trained staff, relatively small class size, low ratios of students to teachers, active family participation, and coordination of health and community services.

More information is needed about the *availability* of programs for children, especially for those "at risk," the *quality* of the programs, and most importantly, whether the programs are making a difference—the *results*.

Persons who make decisions about programs

for young children need to know what the research shows about programs that have positive effects for children. For instance,

Do current programs have:

- low child-to-staff ratios (10:1 is generally recommended)?
- trained staff?
- a curriculum that is developed for the young child?
- low staff turnover?

These are all characteristics of effective programs that have shown longer-term benefits for children.

While states are developing a variety of approaches to offer programs, the information presented here focuses primarily on one area—publicly-funded state educational programs for 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children, and includes benchmarks and data that each state may need in tracking progress. For some measures, new data sources are needed. (For example, most states cannot report how many first-graders have attended preschool programs.)

For a complete understanding of a state's efforts, information will be needed on private and publicly-supported programs, federal and local efforts, programs for handicapped children, child care, and community service programs. While programs such as Head Start or school kindergartens serve children with handicaps, the information and data included here do not include specific special education programs.

AVAILABILITY

Indicators of progress are:

"Increasing the percentage of 'at risk' children served by pre-kindergarten and kindergarten programs to 100 percent by the year 2000."

"Establishing programs that help those children who are unprepared to begin academic work in the first grade in 100 percent of the districts."

As states examine the availability of programs, particularly for children who will benefit most from them, several questions must be answered.

Do states have a clear understanding of their "at risk" population of preschool children?

Has the term "at risk" been defined by states and districts?

What is the state policy on the role of public schools in providing programs for 3-, 4- and 5-year-olds?

What percentage of districts are offering programs?

What percentage of children are being served?

Defining "At Risk"

Definitions and percentages of "at risk" students vary among the SREB states. Two distinctions need to be made.

First, eligibility of districts to receive funding for programs is often based on the proportion of "at risk" students as determined by family income or education. For example, the percent of students receiving free lunches, or districts with 60 percent of adults with no high school education are criteria often used for determining the districts that have the greatest need for programs. Performance at first grade or later may be used; this is the case in South Carolina.

The second distinction is the definition used by districts for individual placement of children in pre-kindergarten programs. For federally-funded programs, such as Head Start, family income is used. State programs may use family income or additional criteria. In Texas, not being able to speak English is a criterion. In Florida, being a child of migrant workers qualifies children for one program. Other states may use some type of individual screening that assesses social, physical, and mental development of a child to determine if a student is "at risk" (Tables 1 and 2).

Currently, most SREB states do not know how many or what percentage of "at risk" first-graders (as defined by each state) have attended kindergarten or pre-kindergarten programs. Several SREB states do not have a working definition of "at risk" children as a group in elementary grades.

Table 1
PERCENT SCHOOL AGE
POPULATION IN POVERTY
SREB STATES, 1980

	Percent School Age Population in Poverty
	1980
Alabama	23%
Arkansas	23
Florida	18
Georgia	21
Kentucky	22
Louisiana	23
Maryland	12
Mississippi	30
North Carolina	18
Oklahoma	15
South Carolina	21
Tennessee	20
Texas	18
Virginia	14
West Virginia	18

Note: Poverty level income was \$7,412 for a family of four.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, "United States Summary: General Social and Economic Characteristics: 1980," (PC80-1-C1), Table 245, 1983.

Table 2
STATE DEFINITIONS OF "AT RISK" CHILDREN, CHILD AND DISTRICT ELIGIBILITY, STATE-FUNDED PROGRAMS SEEB STATES, 1989

	Definition of "At Risk" Children, K-6	Definition of "At Risk" Children in Pre-kindergarten Programs	Criteria for District Eligibility for Pre-kindergarten Programs
Alabama	Any student who for academic or behavioral reasons is in danger of becoming a school dropout.	_____ No Program _____	_____
Arkansas	Children whose educational progress may be jeopardized by health, social, educational, familial, and economic factors.	_____ No Program _____	_____
Florida	Not defined	Early Intervention Program-economic or educational disadvantage as determined by local school board. Migrant Program-migrant used as indicator of disadvantage.	All districts with economically or educationally disadvantaged 3-, 4-year-olds. Migrant children in district.
Georgia	(Established in 1989) Grades K-1: Developmental problems; below 35th percentile on norm-referenced test; Grades 2-5: Below 25th percentile.	_____ No Program _____	_____
Kentucky	Not defined	Parent and Child Education Program (PACE)-child is "at risk" if parent does not have a high school education.	60% adults have no high school diploma.
Louisiana	Not defined	Children from families with incomes below \$15,000, 1 year under entrance age for kindergarten; screening; parental commitment.	Districts apply for awards. Number of projects funded in a district is based on student population.
Maryland	Students who perform at less than average achievement-below 49th percentile; students who attend schools with high concentration of poverty.	Children living in attendance area of qualifying school.	Chapter I eligible schools in each school system can be selected for program participation.
Mississippi	(Under development)	_____ No Program _____	_____
North Carolina	Children who are educationally or economically deprived.	Under development for pilot projects.	Under development for pilot projects. (Awaiting funding by General Assembly)
Oklahoma	Not defined	Children selected on "first come" basis in identified schools.	Economic conditions and geographic distribution of districts.
South Carolina	Not defined	Defined readiness deficiencies and other factors; health appraisal.	Districts receive funding based on student population.
Tennessee	Not defined	_____ No Program _____	_____
Texas	Students who fail to meet the requirements for promotion from one grade to the next.	Eligible for free or reduced-cost lunch or limited English proficiency.	Must offer programs if at least 15 children are eligible.
Virginia	Not defined	Local programs: Meet Chapter I guidelines; economically or educationally disadvantaged as determined by school board.	Any districts choosing to provide services with Chapter I or local funds.
West Virginia	Not defined	Determined by district definition.	All districts are eligible.

SOURCES: State departments of education, April 1989.

Marx, F. and Seligson, M., *Public School Early Childhood Study—State Survey*, Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

Some states do. For instance, in Texas, students who fail to meet promotion requirements from one grade to the next are "at risk"; in Maryland, students who have less than average achievement or who attend schools with high concentrations of poverty are considered "at risk"; in Georgia, those who in kindergarten or first grade score below the 35th percentile on achievement tests are "at risk."

Kindergarten

All SREB states fund publicly-supported kindergarten programs (Table 3). In five SREB states full-day kindergarten *must* be offered. Arkansas, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina require that students attend either public or private kindergarten. Provisions are made for waivers, but they are not used extensively. In states that do not require attendance, it is important to know how many first-graders have attended kindergarten and whether those not attending are from "disadvantaged homes."

National census data show that 96 percent of 5- and 6-year-old children are enrolled in school. In the SREB states, 70 to 95 percent of children in the first grade have attended publicly-funded kindergarten programs. Eight SREB states do not define an "at risk" group, and, therefore, cannot provide information about whether these children have attended kindergarten. In fact, some states do not have information about how many of all first-grade students have attended kindergarten programs (Table 4).

Benchmarks on Availability of Kindergarten Education

- State policies on kindergarten
- Percentage of districts that offer full day/half day programs
- Percentage of first-grade students who have attended kindergarten identified by public or private school attendance and whether considered "at risk"

Table 3
STATE POLICIES ON
KINDERGARTEN SREB
STATES, 1989

	Kindergarten Program That Must be Offered	Percent of Districts That Offer		Minimum Hours/Day for Kindergarten Program	
		Half Day	Full Day	Half Day	Full Day
Alabama	Full Day	...	100%	...	NP*
Arkansas	Half or Full Day	Not Available		3.5	5.5
Florida	Half or Full Day	...	100%	3.0	4.0
		(2 districts offer both)			
Georgia	Full Day	...	100%	...	4.5
Kentucky	Half or Full Day	53%	47%	3.0	6.0
			(or combination)		
Louisiana	Half Day	3%	97%	165 minutes	5.5
Maryland	Half Day	80%	20%	2.5	6.0
Mississippi	Full Day	...	100%	...	5.5
North Carolina	Full Day	...	100%	...	NP*
Oklahoma	Half Day	Not Available		2.5	2.5
South Carolina	Half Day	73%	27%	2.5	NP*
Tennessee	Half Day	100%	0	4.0	NP*
Texas	Half or Full Day	28%	72%	3.0	7.0
Virginia	Half or Full Day	19%	81%	3.0	3.0
West Virginia	Half or Full Day	Not Available		2.6	5.25

"..." = Not Applicable

*NP = No Policy

SOURCES: State departments of education, April 1989.

Council of Chief State School Officers. *State Education Indicators, 1990.*

Table 4
PERCENT OF ALL
FIRST-GRADE STUDENTS
WHO ATTENDED
PRE-KINDERGARTEN AND
KINDERGARTEN
SREB STATES, 1987-1988

	First-grade Membership Fall, 1987*	Estimated Percent of First-Grade Students "At Risk"	Percent of All First-Grade Students Who Attended Pre-K Programs	Percent of All First-Grade Students Who Attended Kindergarten	
				Public	Private
Alabama	62,293	—	—	87%	—
Arkansas	37,225	—	—	—	—
Florida	143,854	—	—	—	—
Georgia	97,353	20%	—	—	—
Kentucky	54,536	"at risk" not identified	—	88%	12%
Louisiana	71,191	"at risk" not identified	—	— 98% —	—
Maryland	58,466	8-12%	17%	91%	—
Mississippi	46,471	"at risk" not identified	less than 1% attend public programs	72%	—
North Carolina	85,622	7%	—	98% (estimated)	—
Oklahoma	54,941	—	—	—	—
South Carolina	55,612	"at risk" not identified	—	87%	9%
Tennessee	71,358	—	—	—	—
Texas	291,838	"at risk" not identified	17%	— 93% —	—
Virginia	79,758	—	—	—	—
West Virginia	26,420	"at risk" not identified	—	—	—

— = Information not available (this and other tables).

* National Center for Education Statistics. Common Core of Data diskette, school year 1987-1988, U.S. Department of Education, December 1988.

SOURCE: State departments of education, April 1989.

Pre-kindergarten

Since 1980, nine SREB states have funded education programs for pre-kindergarten children. Most of the programs focus on "at risk" 4-year-olds, but programs in Kentucky and Florida include 3-year-old children. The program in Texas is estimated to reach about half of the eligible children. In nearly every case, funding is the factor that determines how many children have the opportunity to attend preschool programs.

Additional educational programs in the SREB states include locally- and federally-funded programs for pre-kindergarten 3- and 4-year-olds. Head Start, the largest program for 3- and 4-year-

olds, is a federally-funded effort. Head Start enrolls the largest number of pre-kindergarten children, but it reaches only about 15 to 20 percent of "at risk" children. Federal funding under Chapter 1 for "disadvantaged" students in elementary and secondary grades can be used for school-based programs for pre-kindergarten children. Ten SREB states use Chapter 1 funds in this way. Even Start is a new program under Chapter 1 that will combine adult and early childhood education.

Some SREB states are using other federal funding to channel money into pre-kindergarten programs. This is money not traditionally thought

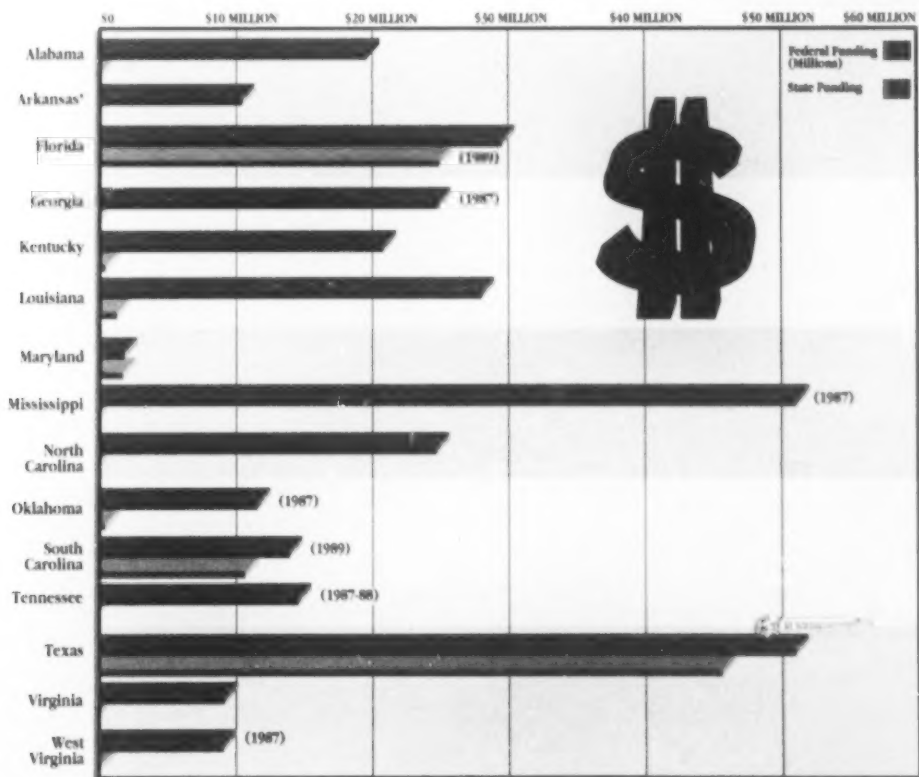
of as earmarked for preschool education. In Arkansas, Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) funding is used to provide services for 3- and 4-year-old children and their parents in the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY). As states direct limited resources, it will become increasingly important to examine flexible funding alternatives for preschool education.

Tracking the state's commitment to ensure that pre-kindergarten children receive needed services will mean that state-, federally-, and locally-funded education programs, child care services, and health services should be followed to determine if programs are reaching "at risk" children. Information compiled here focuses on state-funded education programs, especially those that

are part of the public school program (Table 5, Figures 1 and 2).

Benchmarks on Availability of Pre-kindergarten Education

- State policies on pre-kindergarten education programs
- Numbers of students in programs and funding sources (federal, state, local)
- Percentage of "at risk" children served by programs
- Percentage of all first grade and "at risk" students who have had one or two years of pre-kindergarten education



Fiscal Year 1988 Unless Noted

* Additional federal funding used for some state-sponsored programs (not shown).

**Figure 1
FEDERAL AND STATE
FUNDING FOR
PRE-KINDERGARTEN
PROGRAMS**

SOURCES: Council of Chief State School Officers, *State Profiles, Early Childhood and Parent Education and Related Services*, 1988
State departments of education, April 1989.

Table 5
STATE-FUNDED
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS
FOR PRE-KINDERGARTEN
CHILDREN
35 STATE, 1989

	Program*	Program Description	Funding Method
Alabama	Community Education Programs (1987)	Developmental activities for 4-year-olds with parental training as a part of the program (limited-five districts).	State appropriations—districts apply for funding.
Arkansas	Priority for State Board of Education in 1989-1990. Governor has proposed model for identifying "at risk" 4-year-olds.	No Program	
Florida	Pre-K Early Intervention Program (1986)	Developmentally appropriate program for 3- and 4-year-olds to provide intervention and increase education readiness for children.	Grants to districts based on state formula (may be subcontracted). Some programs in conjunction with Headstart, Title XX, or Chapter 1 programs.
	Early Childhood Migrant Program (1981)	Full day instructional program for 3- and 4-year-olds 5 days a week during school year. Program to develop social, physical, and mental skills; parental involvement.	Formula basis to districts (may be subcontracted).
Georgia	No Program		
Kentucky	Parent and Child Education Program [PACE] (1986)	All day 3 days/week developmental program for 3-, 4-year-olds with parents gaining basic academic and parenting skills.	Districts apply for grants (may be subcontracted).
Louisiana	Early Childhood Development Projects (1984)	Developmental program for "at risk" 4-year-old children—90% are full day.	Awards to district—based on enrollment (may not be subcontracted).
Maryland	Extended Elementary Education Program (1979)	Half day developmental program for 4-year-olds. Cooperative funding (i.e. local and federal Chapter 1 funds) is used to extend the state-funded programs.	Line item in state budget. Districts apply for funds. State funding for salaries only.
Mississippi	No Program		
North Carolina	Pre-kindergarten Pilot Program (Proposed)	16 pilot centers for 3- and 4-year-olds under direction of State Board of Education. Programs would be full day, full year (proposed).	Grants to 16 districts (proposed).
Oklahoma	Early Childhood Development Centers (1980)	Half day/full day program for 4-year-olds 4 days/week to provide early identification of needs. Fifth day is used for parent program. 25 of 37 programs are half day.	Competitive grants to schools—maximum \$27,000.
South Carolina	Half day program for 4-year-olds (1984)	Pre-kindergarten programs offered in 89 of the 91 districts; 72 offer half day for 4-year-olds. All programs have parent participation.	Formula funded for salaries—districts provide building and overhead; some districts extend programs (may subcontract; none do so now).
Tennessee	No Program		
Texas	Pre-kindergarten Program (1984)	Half day program for disadvantaged 4-year-olds.	Funded per child with district contribution in accordance with state law. Some programs in conjunction with Head Start.
Virginia	Pilot Program Only		
West Virginia	Child Development Programs (1987)	Programs in 10 counties that include full day program; home-based parent program; and half day home, half day center-based programs.	Grants to districts.

* Does not include programs designed especially for handicapped children.

SOURCES: State departments of education, April 1989.

Marx, F. and Seligson, M., *Public School Early Childhood Study—State Survey*, Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

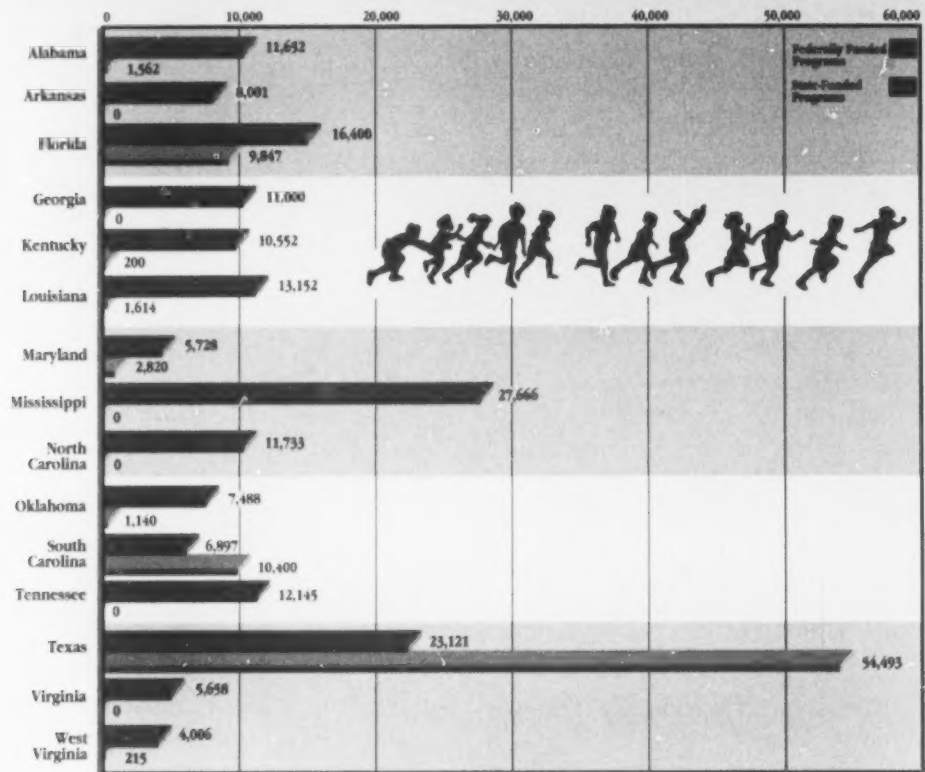


Figure 2
CHILDREN SERVED IN
PUBLICLY-FUNDED
PRE-KINDERGARTEN
PROGRAMS IN SREB STATES

*Fiscal Year 1988 unless noted.

SOURCES: Council of Chief State School Officers, *State Profiles, Early Childhood and Parent Education and Related Services, 1988*. State departments of education, April 1989.

QUALITY

An indicator of progress is:

"Using readiness assessments for all children prior to their beginning the first grade and providing appropriate developmental programs to meet individual needs."

As states and districts examine progress in serving the needs of pre-school children, the quality of educational programs will need to be examined.

Is the funding adequate to provide a successful program?

Are properly trained staff available?

What are required teacher-to-student ratios?

Is staff turnover a problem?

What are the state standards for curriculum in programs?

How is assessment being used in kindergarten or pre-kindergarten programs?

Kindergarten

Funds for operating kindergarten programs have become a part of the regular funding formula for schools in the SREB states. Federal and local funds contribute to total funding in some states.

Table 6
PROGRAM STANDARDS
FOR STATE-FUNDED
KINDERGARTEN PROGRAMS
SREB STATES, 1989

	Required Student/ Teacher Ratio	Curriculum	Year Revised	Student Assessments
Alabama	17:1	Based on developmental philosophy with emphasis on emotional, social, physical, and intellectual development	1987	Determined by local district
Arkansas	20:1	Developmental and readiness program based on state-adopted course content guides	—	No state mandate; district option
Florida	Established by district	Developmental curriculum	—	Primary Education Program
Georgia	20:1	Based on state-mandated quality core curriculum objectives and state handbook for kindergarten	1988	(1988-89) California Achievement Test (1989-1990) Criterion-referenced test to be administered individually
Kentucky	25:1 Maximum of 28	State guidelines	1985	Appropriate norm-referenced tests may be used.
Louisiana	20:1 Maximum of 26	Developmental, with emphasis on emotional, social, physical, and intellectual development	1986	Kindergarten developmental readiness screening program upon entrance.
Maryland	22-25:1	Based on age and stage of development	—	Early Identification and Intervention Program
Mississippi	24:1 or 27:1 with teacher assistant	State guidelines	—	Stanford Achievement Test (until 1989-90)
North Carolina	23:1	Basic Education Program outlines curriculum	introduced 1986	Screening; selection by district; must be developmentally appropriate
Oklahoma	23:1 (proposed)	Basic learning and communications skills	1987	Mandated screening; instruments selected at the local level
South Carolina	30:1 Maximum of 30	Based on stated philosophy; developmentally appropriate	1982	Not statewide
Tennessee	25:1	State guidelines	—	Pre-first grade screening (state mandate)
Texas	22:1	State guidelines	1984	None at state level
Virginia	25:1	Appropriate to readiness and maturity levels	1986	Standards of Learning Assessment/Readiness Assessment (K or 1)
West Virginia	20:1 If class is larger than 10, an aide is required	Concentrates on developing intellectual, physical/motor, and social/emotional skills	1983	Evaluation program to measure readiness to begin formal school is required (to be developed by regional centers; effective 1990-1991)

SOURCES: State departments of education, April 1989.

Marx, F. and Seligson, M., *Public School Early Childhood Study—State Survey*, Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

However, SREB states, for the most part, do not compile information about local funding of kindergarten programs.

Across the SREB states, program standards for kindergarten show more similarities than differences. State standards and objectives influence the

curriculum in most states; whether these reflect the latest thinking in early childhood education should be examined. Required teacher-to-child ratios are an important consideration.

Another quality issue is the use of assessments or tests of readiness for young children, as noted

earlier. Assessments need to examine physical, social, and mental readiness of children to begin academic work. The *purpose* of the assessment must be absolutely clear, that is, to ensure that each child gets the appropriate help (Table 6).

Quality and training of staff are important in tracking progress. All SREB states require certification of teachers in public kindergarten programs. Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Tennessee require that teachers in private kindergarten must be certified if the program is to receive state accreditation.

In most states certification allows a teacher to teach in kindergarten and early elementary grades. A lingering question is whether holding a certificate translates into properly educated teachers and staff. While many states require that a certification test be taken in early childhood education, it is not clear whether teacher education programs and classroom experiences that are a part of the program for kindergarten through grade 4 or kindergarten through grade 6 teachers include the kind of preparation needed for teaching 3-, 4-, or 5-year-old children (Table 7).

In the SREB states, over 300 colleges and universities have been approved to offer early childhood programs. In 1985, 88 percent of some 1,700 graduates were from public institutions. This figure underestimates the supply, since graduates may complete programs in elementary education, special education, or home economics and be certified to teach young children. Alabama, Georgia, Maryland, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia report few or no persons teaching out-of-field in kindergarten programs. Other states do not report such data. As programs expand, states will need teachers and paraprofessionals who have appropriate education and training.

Benchmarks for Quality of Kindergarten Education

- State, local, and federal funding in relation to numbers of children in programs
- Required teacher-to-student ratio
- State policy on appropriate curriculum
- Use of assessments for individual student needs

- Teachers with appropriate education for teaching kindergarten

Pre-kindergarten

Accepted standards for pre-kindergarten programs are generally the same as those presented earlier on kindergarten programs. These include: appropriate curriculum, low child/staff ratios, class sizes that do not exceed 20 children, and staff training. While important in all early childhood programs, parent participation takes on additional importance in programs for 3- and 4-year-olds (Table 8).

As states expand programs, the need for qualified teachers will increase. Seven SREB states require certification for pre-kindergarten teachers (Louisiana, Maryland, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia).

A 1988 study by the Bank Street College of Education showed that a bachelor's degree is required for most state- and locally-funded pre-kindergarten programs, but that only about 40 percent of the Head Start programs require a degree. Almost 60 percent of the teachers in state-funded programs had Early Childhood Education certification and one year of experience teaching children under 5 years of age; about 40 percent of Head Start teachers had the same qualifications. SREB states report 80 to 100 percent of teachers in state-funded pre-kindergarten programs are certified.

Turnover rates, especially among paraprofessionals working with children, are of special concern. Turnover often can be linked to salaries paid to teachers and staff. Only about half of the SREB states that have pre-kindergarten programs are able to report turnover rates for teachers and paraprofessionals.

Benchmarks for Quality of Pre-kindergarten Education

- Funding in relation to number of children served and in relation to number of children "at risk"
- Required teacher-to-child ratio
- State policy on appropriate curriculum, with assessment of needs of children

Table 7
PRE-KINDERGARTEN AND
KINDERGARTEN TEACHER
CERTIFICATION
REQUIREMENTS
32 STATES, 1989

	Certificate Required to Teach Kindergarten	Specialty Area Test	Certification Required for Private School Teachers	Certificate Required to Teach Pre-kindergarten	Requirements for Pre-kindergarten Certification
Alabama	K-3 Early Childhood	None	Yes. Any type of certificate.	No	N/A
Arkansas	K-6 Elementary Education	NTE-Early Childhood	Yes. Only in accredited schools.	No	N/A
Florida	K-3 Primary Education 6 semester hours in N-K Methods and Observation	State-developed Primary Education	No	No	Under development
Georgia	K-4 Early Childhood	State-developed Early Childhood or Middle School	No	No	N/A
Kentucky	K-4		Yes. Only in accredited schools.	No	N/A
Louisiana	N-K	NTE-Early Childhood	No. Must have bachelor degree with 12 hours child development or certification in appropriate area.	Yes	NTE-Early Childhood Test
Maryland	N-3	NTE-Early Childhood	No	Yes	NTE-Early Childhood Test
Mississippi	K-8 Elementary Education	NTE-Education in Elementary School	No	N-K certificate was issued until 1986	NA
North Carolina	K-6	NTE-Elementary Education	No	Pre-K-K add-on endorsement	Former K-4 Early Childhood certificate plus Pre-K endorsement
Oklahoma	K-8 Elementary Education	State-developed Elementary Education	Yes. Only in accredited schools.	Yes	Early Childhood Test
South Carolina	K-4 Early Childhood	NTE-Early Childhood	No	Yes. In public school programs	Same as kindergarten
Tennessee	1-8 Elementary Education and Kindergarten Endorsement	NTE-Early Childhood	Yes. In state approved schools.	No	N/A
Texas	Teacher of Young Children-General PK-K (Early Childhood) PK-6/Early Childhood Kindergarten Endorsement	State-developed Kindergarten Test; Early Childhood Test	No	Yes	Elementary-general or vocational home economics with kindergarten endorsement
Virginia	NK-4 Endorsement	NTE-Early Childhood Elementary Education	No	Yes. In public school programs	NK-4 Endorsement; NTE
West Virginia	Professional Certification and Endorsement (PK-K) or Multi-Subject K-4	State-developed Specialty test	No	Yes	PK-K Early Childhood Test

N = Nursery; K = Kindergarten; NTE = National Teacher Examinations; N/A = Not applicable
SOURCE: State departments of education, April 1989.

Table 8
STANDARDS FOR STATE
PRE-KINDERGARTEN
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS
SREB STATES, 1989

	Program	Required Child/ Teacher Ratio	Curriculum	Use of Assessment
Alabama	Standards are under Development			
Arkansas	No Program			
Florida	Early Childhood, Pre-K Intervention	8:1 recommended	Individualized instruction to develop physical skills, language development, and social skills	Assessment determined by district, longitudinal assessment is required. Assessment of need is required—determined by district
	Early Childhood Migrant	10:1 class limit of 17:20		
Georgia	No Program			
Kentucky	Parent and Child Education (PACE)	7.5:1 Limit 15	High/Scope Developmental Program	Developmental assessments
Louisiana	Early Childhood Development	20:1 with full-time aide 13-15:1 with half-time aide 12:1 with no aide	Full-day programs are recommended—about 75% of the districts use commercially developed programs, others are locally developed. All have parental involvement (Reviewed by SDOE)	All must use a screening instrument for readiness and social maturity (districts may select one of five); Pre/Post measures may be used by districts for program evaluation
Maryland	Extended Elementary Education Program	Teacher plus Teacher Assistant. 10:1 with maximum class size of 20 students	Language and concept development—small group instruction and child-initiated activity; home cooperation is stressed; children are followed through age 9	Ongoing assessment of child's growth and development—across staff in the early learning years
Mississippi	No Program			
North Carolina	Pre-kindergarten Pilot Program (proposed)	16:2	Under development	Under development
Oklahoma	Early Childhood Development Centers	Maximum class size of 20	Developmental curriculum with learning environment arranged in centers; must provide continuity to kindergarten program	Informal and formal assessments
South Carolina	Half-day 4-year-old Program	10:1 1 Teacher and 1 aide per 20 students	Developmental curriculum using NAEYC guidelines is recommended; High/Scope model is encouraged	Screening for developmental level
Tennessee	No Program			
Texas	Pre-kindergarten for 4-year-olds	22:1 maximum class size of 22	State guidelines for curriculum in the areas of communication, cognition, fine arts, etc.	Determined by districts.
Virginia	Pre-kindergarten pilot program for 4-year-olds	10:1 maximum class size of 20	High/Scope cognitively-oriented curriculum	Developmental Screening test; optional pre/post measure of progress
West Virginia	Child Development Programs—Center-based; Home-based; Home- and center-based	15:1	Child development programs serving children with developmental problems	State department has developed a child assessment system for use in 6 areas; curriculum guides have been developed to address needs of children

SOURCES: State departments of education, April 1989.

Marx, F. & Seligson, M., *Public School Early Childhood Study—State Survey*, Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

- Teachers with appropriate education and experience with children under five years of age; paraprofessionals with proper training

- Turnover rates for teachers and staff

- Additional measures may include availability of child care with education programs, parent participation, and salary of teachers and staff

RESULTS FOR CHILDREN

Fewer high school dropouts, more students attending college, and students with higher achievement in elementary and high school will be long-term indicators that progress is occurring in reaching educational goals in the coming years. Studies tracking differences into early high school years for children who have attended quality pre-kindergarten and kindergarten programs show positive effects. This approach for determining their effectiveness will need to be used in long-term evaluation of programs.

Limited information is currently available on the impact of pre-kindergarten programs in the SREB states, especially long-term studies. Through demonstration of readiness for the first grade and achievement and retention in early grades, South Carolina is tracking progress of children who have attended pre-kindergarten programs. States should undertake both long- and short-term evaluations of programs.

As states and districts begin to track progress toward having all children ready for the first grade, outcome measures in the early grades will be short-term indicators. Those may include: retention in early grades, special education placements, achievement, results of readiness assessments of physical, social, and mental skills, especially examining changes in what percentage of children are deemed "ready" in different skill areas. States should use a wide variety of measures in tracking progress. Using outcome measures for program evaluation will enable states to pinpoint problems of needed services for children (Table 9).

Because of the broad nature of services needed—educational, health, and social services, such as child care—effective coordination at the state level and in local communities is necessary. In South Carolina, state coordination is handled

through an agency in the governor's office. In Virginia, a state agency to coordinate services for education and child care was created and funded by the 1989 General Assembly (Table 10).

Benchmarks for Results and Coordination

- Percentage of students meeting readiness assessments to begin first-grade academic work
- Percentage of children retained in first grade
- Achievement of children in early grades, with special attention to those who have attended pre-kindergarten and kindergarten programs
- State policy on coordination of services

Selected Resources

Council of Chief State School Officers. *State Profiles: Early Childhood and Parent Education and Related Services*. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers, 1988.

Marx, F. and Seligson, M. *The Public School Early Childhood Study—State Survey*. New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

Mitchell, A. *The Public School Early Childhood Study—District Survey*. New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

National Association of State Boards of Education. *Right from the Start: The Report of the NASBE Task Force on Early Childhood Education*. Alexandria, Virginia: National Association of State Boards of Education, 1988.

Table 9
SELECTED STUDENT OUTCOME
MEASURES FOR
EARLY GRADES
SEED STATES, 1989

	Percent of Students Meeting Readiness Assessments for First Grade 1987-88	Percent of Children Retained in First Grade 1987-88	Achievement Tests in Early Grades			
			Grades			
			K	1	2	3
Alabama	Not Applicable	—		NRT	NRT	CRT
Arkansas	Not Applicable	—				CRT
Florida	Not Applicable	9.6%				NAEP/CRT (1987, 1988 only)
Georgia	91.4%	12.6%	NRT	CRT	NRT	NAEP/CRT
Kentucky	Not Applicable	5.1%	NRT	NRT	NRT	NRT
Louisiana	Not Applicable	14%				CRT
Maryland	Assessments determined by local district; not required.	7.8%				NRT
Mississippi	Not Applicable	13.6%				CRT
North Carolina	Not Applicable	7.7%				NRT/CRT
Oklahoma	Not Applicable	—				NRT
South Carolina	75.2%	—		CRT	CRT	CRT
Tennessee	Not Applicable	—			NRT	CRT
Texas	Not Applicable	Approximately 10%		CRT (to be phased out)		CRT
Virginia	Not Applicable	8.7%		NRT* CRT	CRT	CRT
West Virginia	Not Applicable	—	CRT	CRT	CRT	CRT

CRT - = Criterion Referenced Test

NRT - = Norm-Referenced Test

NAEP = National Assessment of Educational Progress

* Ability, not achievement test

SOURCE: State departments of education, 1989.

Table 10
STATE COORDINATION OF
PROGRAMS FOR
PRESCHOOL CHILDREN
SEEN STATES, 1989

	Agency	Authority	Function
Alabama	Governor's Task Force on Child Care State Advisory Committee on Kindergarten	Ad hoc committee (1986) Advisory	Address issues across programs
Arkansas	Governor's Task Force on Child Care	Ad hoc committee (1987)	Long-range planning and coordination
Florida	State Advisory Council on Early Childhood Education (District Coordinating Councils are required)	Legislation (1986)—assist and advise Commissioner of Education with implementation of Pre-K program	Review of recommended rules, technical assistance, conduct studies; assist department of education in monitoring programs
Georgia	Commission for Children and Youth	Office of Governor (1987);	Planning and coordination at state level for day care and schools
Kentucky	Office of Early Childhood Education and Development	Legislation (1986)	Coordinate programs
	Interagency Council on Early Childhood Education and Development	Office of Governor (1986)	Planning, expanding parent and child education, and administering grants program
	Interagency Advisory Committee on Early Childhood Education and Development		Support to Interagency Council
Louisiana	Social and health service agencies	—	Coordination of day care and health services for children
Maryland	Interagency Council	Office of Governor (1985)	Coordination of 3 departments responsible for licensing—Health, Education, and Human Resources
	Governor's Council on Early Childhood Development	Legislation (1987)	Review, promote, and encourage early childhood education; coordinate child care and public preschool programs.
Mississippi	Office for Children and Youth	Office of Governor (1988)	Coordination of programs for children and youth
North Carolina	State Department of Public Instruction	Legislation	Leadership and staff development
Oklahoma	Commission on Children and Youth	Legislation	Plan and coordinate services to children and youth.
South Carolina	Interagency Coordinating Council for Early Childhood Development and Education	Office of Governor (1980)	Guides policy and coordinates programs and resources across agencies.
	Interagency Advisory Committee on Early Childhood Development and Education	Office of Governor (1980)	Identification of issues, priorities and policy recommendations for Council consideration.
Tennessee	Governor's Task Force on Day Care	Ad hoc Committee (1986)	Encourage development of more and better day care opportunities for children.
Texas	Texas Education Agency Texas Department of Human Services	Legislation (1987)	Development of a model for coordination of Pre-kindergarten, Head Start, and Title XX day care services.
Virginia	Council on Child Care and Early Childhood Development	Office of Governor (1989)	Provide an integrated multi-agency approach to delivery of quality child day care and early childhood development services; plan, coordinate, and evaluate all child day care and early childhood development programs within the Commonwealth.
West Virginia	Governor's Commission on Children and Youth	Office of Governor (1979)	General issues about children
	Task Force on Families, Children and Youth	Ad hoc committee— Office of Governor (1989)	General issues about families, children and youth

SOURCES: State departments of education, April 1989.

Marx, F. and Seligson, M., *Public School Early Childhood Study—State Survey*, Bank Street College of Education, 1988.

REACHING THE GOAL OF READINESS FOR COLLEGE

592 Tenth Street, N.W. • Atlanta, Georgia 30318-5790 • 1989 • \$5.00



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FOREWORD

States should strive for national, and increasingly international, standards in education. There is wide agreement among state leaders about this. All Southern Regional Education Board states have implemented educational reforms and new standards. The long-term results of these changes will determine whether there is a better future, with improved standards of living, for the citizens of this region.

But what results are expected from the new educational standards and programs?

- Have state leaders shaped the educational reforms into a vision of what they expect to accomplish?
- Do educators and government officials have ways of knowing whether they are on track with the educational programs? Of knowing whether they are supporting them adequately?

States that set educational goals will need to know what actions or results—what indicators of progress—will signal to citizens, educators, and government leaders that they are moving toward or reaching those goals. This report is one in a series presenting information about the “indicators of progress” for each goal in SREB’s report, *Goals for Education: Challenge 2000*. The first group also includes reports that deal with school readiness and state funding for schools and colleges. Reports looking at other goals and related indicators will appear in the future.

SREB has suggested 12 goals and specific “indicators of progress” for each. These are not the only important goals or indicators. As priorities differ, so will goals and indicators. Each of the three reports in the current series provides information on issues related to a specific goal and the set of indicators to track progress.

Improving college readiness, or reducing the percentage of entering college students who need remedial work, is a major concern of educators and governmental leaders. This particular report identifies several issues related to preparing students for college and important questions for monitoring progress toward the goal. It provides estimates of the number of entering college students who need remedial coursework and information on special high school diplomas for college-bound students and high school academic courses required for admission to public colleges and universities in the SREB states.

The report also indicates that few states currently have in place state-level information systems which can provide the answers to some of the critical questions about students’ progress through elementary and secondary school and college. State departments of education, state higher education agencies, and institutions of higher education have provided the factual information in this report. Their assistance reflects the spirit of sharing and interstate cooperation for which the SREB region is known.

Winfred L. Godwin, President
Southern Regional Education Board

BY THE YEAR 2000—

4 of every 5 students entering college will be ready to begin college-level work.

Goals for Education
CHALLENGE 2000

More than one-third of the freshmen entering colleges and universities in the SREB states may need remedial instruction. That estimate (which is some 210,000 students) was given to SREB by college and university officials. At many institutions the estimate of entering students needing remedial help was closer to one-half (see Table 1).

To increase the percentage of students ready to begin college-level work from 65 percent to 80 percent will require strong efforts from schools *and* colleges. If states meet this goal, essentially they will have reduced by one-half the remedial education problems in their colleges. Such a dramatic change in a stubborn problem will not come easily.

In 1980, of every 100 persons over age 25 in the nation, 67 had completed four years of high school or more, but in the SREB states the total was only 60 of 100. Nationally, 32 of 100 had some postsecondary education; the corresponding figure was 29 of 100 in the SREB states. Nationally, 16 of 100 had completed four or more years of college, compared to 15 in the SREB states.

While high school graduation and college enrollment rates improved dramatically for all groups during the 1970s and 1980s, black and Hispanic students still are much less likely to complete college than are white students. It is estimated that in 1986, 19 percent of the white adult population in the region had completed four or more years of college compared to 10.5 percent of black adults and 8.4 percent of Hispanic adults. Reducing the disparities in educational attainment among ethnic groups is a *must* if SREB states are to reach national levels and compete successfully in economic development.

We cannot afford to wait for the year 2000 to know if we have met the goal of college readiness. Nor do we have to wait.

Colleges and universities can provide annual measures of progress by reporting results of freshman placement tests and success rates of students in both remedial and regular programs of study.

In states determined to have more students prepared for college, annual indicators that track student performance in secondary (or even elementary) school will provide the handwriting on the wall—foretelling if progress is being made.

Meeting the long-term goal of SREB states to reach national levels for students completing four or more years of college will require that more high school students complete a solid core of the academic subjects that are needed to do college-level study. It follows that students will not be ready to begin the college preparatory academic subjects in high school unless they develop appropriate skills in elementary school.

The major college readiness issues are:

- (1) defining college-level study and college preparatory curricula;
- (2) increasing the number and percentage of high school students participating in college preparatory curricula;
- (3) improving the quality of secondary school preparation for college.

Assessing progress will require monitoring the movement of students through the "educational pipeline."

What are some of the important questions about getting students ready for college?

1. Have the public 4-year colleges and universities in the state established clear standards for admission that include a core of required academic high school courses?

Table 1
AVERAGE PERCENT OF
FIRST-TIME FRESHMEN
NEEDING REMEDIAL/
DEVELOPMENTAL
EDUCATION, BY TYPE OF
PUBLIC INSTITUTION,
SREB STATES, 1986

	Two-Year Colleges	Liberal Arts/ Comprehensive	Doctoral/ Research	All Institutions
SREB States	37.3%	37.6%	22.3%	35.7%
Alabama	55.5	32.6	13.3	43.1
Arkansas	32.5	45.4	33.0	38.2
Florida	42.6	26.5	4.3	35.1
Georgia	33.1	38.3	20.0	34.6
Kentucky	38.4	27.0	19.0	31.6
Louisiana	62.0	58.6	43.0	56.3
Maryland	36.9	41.2	20.0	36.6
Mississippi	33.7	38.0	24.2	31.3
North Carolina	40.2	28.0	9.7	36.2
Oklahoma	24.6	28.2	15.0	25.1
South Carolina	52.1	47.2	2.0	46.4
Tennessee	55.3	47.7	31.5	46.6
Texas	28.1	38.9	30.6	30.5
Virginia	23.5	30.6	25.0	25.2
West Virginia	39.8	32.0	—	34.8

NOTE: These 1986 institutional responses were based on experience in prior years of percent of students needing one or more remedial/developmental courses. The percentages are influenced by factors such as number of responding institutions, their individual missions, and their different standards, or lack of specific standards, to determine if students need remedial/developmental education.

SOURCE: "Remedial Education In College: How Widespread Is It?" *Issues in Higher Education*, No. 24, Southern Regional Education Board, 1988.

2. How many exceptions to these standards does each institution grant each year? Is the number of exceptions rising or falling?

group is white? Black? Hispanic? Male? Female? Are these percentages increasing over time? Decreasing?
3. What percent of students are enrolled in college preparatory programs in the high schools? What percent of these are white? Black? Hispanic? Native American? Asian? Male? Female? Are these percentages rising or falling?

SREB recommends that the percentage of students enrolled in college preparatory programs equal or exceed the percentage of graduates who enter postsecondary programs. At present this is not the case in any SREB state.
4. What percent of high school students are enrolled in and graduate from vocational-technical programs? What percent of this
5. What percent of students are enrolled in a general curriculum or other types of high school programs? Are the percentages available by ethnic group and sex? How are the percentages changing?
6. What percent of students from college preparatory programs go on to postsecondary education within one year of completing high school? From the vocational programs? From the general program? Are these percentages changing?
7. What percent of students will have successfully completed algebra I by Grade 10? Is this information available for each ethnic group? By sex?

Algebra I is a "gatekeeper" course. Students who have not completed algebra I early in their high school program will have great difficulty getting all the math they need to be ready for college. Also, they probably will not take, nor be counseled to take, the other courses needed in their final two years of high school to prepare them for college.

8. What percent of students have completed other critical courses at the appropriate point in their programs, that is, specific English, foreign language or science courses? Is the data available by ethnic group and sex?

9. Is there a process for periodically assessing the quality of courses offered in the high schools, such as end-of-course tests in critical subjects?

10. How many high schools offered Advanced Placement courses last year? Is this number rising? Falling?

SREB recommends a goal of at least 60 percent by the year 2000.

11. What percent of students taking Advanced Placement examinations scored at or above the national average in each subject?
12. What was the percent of students scoring at or above 3 on the Advanced Placement examinations in each subject? In recent years have these percentages been rising or falling? (A score of 3 or better represents the point at which most colleges offer credit or advanced standing.)
13. How are high school students doing on nationally normed tests of achievement? How well are white students doing? Blacks? Hispanics? Males? Females?
14. Are the differences among majority and minority groups in performance on nationally normed tests being reduced or is the gap widening?
15. Whenever possible between now and the year 2000, is the state planning to collect

National Assessment of Educational Progress data so that state results can be compared with national results?

16. Does the state have a way of giving prospective college students a signal while they are in high school that they are "on schedule" for being ready for first-year college courses?

Results of college placement tests given in the 11th grade or scores on high school end-of-course tests can be used to alert students.

17. Has every institution of higher education clearly defined the skills students need to begin college-level study?

18. When each institution of higher education carries out its annual assessment of how many students need to be placed in remedial courses, can it report the rate is for students who met their course requirements for admission? By ethnic groups? By sex?

19. How often does each institution of higher education assess just how well its remedial program is working? What does that information show for students from different backgrounds?

20. Does the state have a system for sending information from colleges to schools showing which or how many of their recent graduates needed remedial courses in college? Do these reports show if the students successfully completed the remedial courses? Are the students who complete remedial courses satisfactorily as successful as other students in regular degree credit courses? What percent of students needing remedial courses successfully complete the first year and continue into the second year of college? How do these rates compare to the rates for other students?

If these questions were asked of individual states today, which ones could be answered? Is there adequate information by majority or minority student groups? By sex? Are educational and governmental leaders receiving regular reports on the answers? Which questions are so

important that, if they cannot be answered, the information should be gathered?

A 1989 survey by SREB suggests that in almost every state many of these questions cannot presently be answered or answered positively, particularly as they relate to the status and progress of students from different ethnic groups.

To have 4 of 5 entering college students ready to do college-level work, states will need answers to the above questions and will need to take actions as indicated. Without the answers and the actions, the problem of too many students needing remedial courses in college will be little different in the year 2000 than it is today.

DEFINING COLLEGE PREPARATORY (ACADEMIC) CURRICULA

Common sense suggests that the kinds of courses taken in high school influence performance on college admissions and placement tests and the degree of success in college. Available evidence confirms this fact. Choosing the "right" courses is critical because those students who are most likely to be fully prepared for college-level studies are those who have completed a "college prep" or "academic" program of study. To reduce remediation in college it is necessary to increase the percentage of high school students who enroll in and successfully complete college preparatory courses and curricula.

The National Commission on Excellence in Education recommended in 1983 that college-bound high school graduates complete a minimum of 15 units, including 4 years of English, 3 years of social studies, 3 years of mathematics, 3 years of science, and 2 years of foreign language. Most SREB states have in effect, or have recommended, an increased number of units in college preparatory courses for admission to four-year public colleges and universities (see Table 2).

Those states which have not formally adopted minimum statewide course requirements for admission encourage high school students to take a solid college preparatory curriculum to be considered for admission to public colleges and universities. The university systems in Florida and Georgia require at least the number of units and the distribution of courses recommended by the National Commission. Other states require or recommend the total number of units, but the distribution of courses is different.

Of the SREB states that offer special recognition diplomas, 10 require the units recommended by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (see Table 3).

In those states where minimum course requirements for admission to public four-year colleges and universities have been in place long enough to gauge their impact, high school students appear to be responding well. The South Carolina Commission on Higher Education reports that 81 percent of the state residents who enrolled as freshmen in South Carolina public colleges in 1988 met all of the prerequisite course requirements. In 1987, the year before these standards went into effect, only 47 percent of the freshmen who were state residents had taken all of the high school courses. Tennessee reports similar results.

All SREB states have more schools and students participating in the Advanced Placement program, which provides a way for high schools to offer college-level courses to talented students (Table 4). In 1988, more than 32 percent of the high schools in SREB states offered one or more Advanced Placement courses to more than 71,000 students in grades 10 through 12. One of the benefits of participating in the Advanced Placement program is that the school must offer prerequisite courses to prepare students for these courses, which helps strengthen the total curricula. The kinds of skills and knowledge needed to successfully complete Advanced Placement courses are typical of the skills and knowledge that will be required of high school graduates when they enter college.

Table 2
UNITS OF HIGH SCHOOL
WORK REQUIRED AT
THE STATE LEVEL FOR
COLLEGE ADMISSIONS,
SEVEN STATES, 1988

	English	Math	Science	Social Studies	Foreign Language	Comments
Arkansas Recommended	4	2	2	3	2	Science units must be taken in biology, physics, or chemistry. ½ unit of computer science is also required. Foreign language must be in one language.
Florida Required	4	3	3	3	2	Four additional electives within the college preparatory areas or from a list of approved electives are required.
Georgia Required	4	3	3	3	2	The following courses are strongly recommended: fine arts, one additional lab course in science, a third course in foreign language or study in a second foreign language, trigonometry, computer technology, typing, and physical and health education.
Kentucky Required	4	3	2	2	—	One additional unit each in math and science, study in a foreign language, fine arts, and computer science are also recommended.
Louisiana Recommended	4	3	3	3	3	½ unit of "Free Enterprise" required. Two units of physical education, one unit of fine arts, and one unit of typing are also recommended.
Maryland Required	4	3	2	3	2 (effective in 1992)	Two years of foreign language and one additional math course are currently recommended.
Mississippi Required	4	3	3	2½	—	One elective in math, science, or foreign language is required. Units in foreign language, computer science, and typing are also recommended.
North Carolina Required, 1990	4	3	3	2	—	Two units of foreign language are recommended. One language unit and one math unit should be taken in the 12th grade.
Oklahoma Required	4	3	2	2	—	Two units of foreign language and two units from the following are recommended: computer science, speech, economics, geography, government, psychology, or sociology.
South Carolina Required	4	3	2	3	2	One additional unit is required: math, computer science, or a combination of these, or world history, world geography, or western civilization.
Tennessee Required	4	3	2	2	2	Math units must include Algebra I and II, and geometry or another advanced course. One unit of U.S. history is included in the social studies requirement. Institutions governed by the State Board of Regents require one unit in the visual and/or performing arts and recommend an additional unit in the arts, math, and foreign language.
West Virginia Required 1990	4	2	2	3	—	Two units in foreign language are recommended.

SOURCE: Compiled by the Southern Regional Education Board with information from the state higher education agencies.

**Table 3
SPECIAL RECOGNITION
PROGRAMS FOR HIGH
SCHOOL GRADUATES,
SREB STATES, 1988**

	Award	English	Math	Science	Social Studies	Foreign Language	Physical Education/ Health	Other Required Courses	Minimum Credits Required
Alabama	Advanced Diploma	4	3	3 (one lab)	4	2	1½	—	22
	Comments: Must become knowledgeable of computers through related coursework								
Florida	Academic Scholar Certificate	4	4	4 (two labs)	3	2	1	1 credit in fine arts	26
	Comments: Students scoring 1100 on the SAT, and graduating with a 3.0 GPA with no grade lower than a "C" will automatically be admitted to any state community college or university for up to three years after graduation; these students will also be eligible for a \$500 or \$750 scholarship while attending any public or private in-state institution								
Georgia	Seal of Endorsement	4	3	3 (two labs)	3	2	1	1 credit in vocational education, fine arts, or computer technology	21
Kentucky	Commonwealth Diploma	4 plus one AP course**	3 one AP course in either area	2	2	1 Must be an AP course	1	1 elective credit must be an AP course	22
	Comments: Students must complete an AP exam in at least three of the four required AP courses								
Louisiana	Regents Scholar	4	3	3	3½	3	2	1 credit in fine arts	24
	Comments: Certificate awarded by the Board of Regents								
	Louisiana Scholar Program	4	3	3	3	—	2	½ unit in computer literacy	23
	Comments: ACT score of 29 or above, 3.5 GPA with no semester grade lower than a "B," no unexcused absences, and no high school suspensions earns a Gold Seal on the diploma								
Maryland	Certificate of Merit	4	3	3	3	1	1	1 credit each in fine arts; computers, home economics, vocational education, or industrial arts/ technology education	20
	Comments: 2.6 cumulative GPA; must complete at least 12 credits of advanced courses, as defined by the local school systems in accordance with state criteria								
North Carolina	North Carolina Scholars Program	4	3	3	3	2	1	1 credit each in vocational education and arts education	22
	Comments: Overall "B" average; may opt to "concentrate" electives in one of seven areas								

**Table 3
(CONTINUED)**

	Award	English	Math	Science	Social Studies	Foreign Language	Physical Education/Health	Other Required Courses	Minimum Credits Required
Oklahoma	Academic Scholars Program	4	3	3	3	—	—	—	22
Comments: 3.7 GPA or rank in top 10 percent of graduating class; ACT score of 26 or SAT combined score of 1100									
South Carolina	Academic Achievement Honors Award	4	3	2	3	2	1	—	22
Comments: "B" or higher in each semester course; SAT score of 650 verbal or 700 mathematics									
Tennessee	Honors Diploma	4	3	3 (two labs)	3	2	1½	2 credits in fine arts	20½
Comments: Cumulative 3.0 GPA with no grade lower than a "C"									
Texas	Advanced High School Program	4	3	3	2½	2	2 (1½ physical education; ½ health)	½ credit in economics; 1 credit each in fine arts and computer science	22
Virginia	Advanced Studies Program	4	3*	3 (all lab)	3	3	2	1 credit in fine or practical arts (Effective Class of 1992)	23
Comments: Overall "B" average or better earns Governor's Seal on the diploma									
West Virginia Proposed	Certificate of Academic Excellence	Designed for students going beyond the standard requirements in completing a vocational or college preparatory curriculum; criteria include a 3.5 GPA							

* Includes algebra I and two courses above algebra I level.

** AP (Advanced Placement). College-level courses taken in high school.

SOURCE: Compiled by the Southern Regional Education Board with information from the state departments of education, 1988.

IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF COLLEGE PREPARATION

Getting more students into "academic" courses in high school will not automatically result in less remediation in college. Courses must be challenging enough to prepare students for college and students must perform well in them.

A recent SREB report indicates that all SREB states have developed or strengthened curriculum guides for most "academic" courses. A few states already are using end-of-course or subject area tests to obtain information about the degree to which these curriculum objectives are being met in high school classrooms. Through its end-of-

course testing program, North Carolina obtains information on students who have completed courses and how well they have met course objectives. North Carolina can also monitor changes in average scores over time by ethnic groups, sex, and grade level of students.

Colleges and universities can assist in improving the quality of preparation for college by providing better information to high schools on student performance in college.

Table 4
ADVANCED PLACEMENT
PROGRAMS FOR PUBLIC
SCHOOL STUDENTS,
SREB STATES, 1988

	Schools Offering Advanced Placement		Number of Advanced Placement Examinations Taken by Public School Students	Percent Increase in Examinations Taken 1986 to 1988	Percent of Students with Score of 3-5*
	Number	Percent			
USA	8,247	36	324,755	27	66
SREB	2,535	32	101,848	31	61
Alabama	227	40	4,168	52	52
Arkansas	60	14	894	24	65
Florida	299	50	25,111	24	54
Georgia	216	39	5,864	34	61
Kentucky	134	33	3,592	42	45
Louisiana	85	14	1,553	29	56
Maryland	202	62	8,543	20	71
Mississippi	58	13	997	16	48
North Carolina	223	42	7,676	26	62
Oklahoma	53	10	1,361	43	59
South Carolina	199	52	8,767	18	53
Tennessee	152	33	4,516	33	60
Texas	297	21	12,811	36	68
Virginia	271	57	14,924	40	72
West Virginia	59	27	1,071	73	49

* A score of 3-5 (on a 1-5 scale) is considered acceptable for college credit.
SOURCE: Data provided by The College Board Advanced Placement Program, 1988.

This can be information about performance on placement tests when students enter college and the success rates of freshman students in remedial and regular programs. When coupled with what the high schools learn from end-of-course and/or subject matter tests, such information can provide a tangible way for school and college faculty to work together to improve instruction and counseling for potential college students.

Eight SREB states have, or soon will have, annual reports from public colleges and universities to high schools on students' readiness for college (see Table 5).

In Louisiana an annual report on first-time entering freshmen provides information on

student performance at public colleges and universities. The report to the school system reveals how many of its high school graduates enrolled in Louisiana colleges and universities, how many were required to take remedial/developmental courses, and the number and percent of remedial/developmental students who completed the first term in good academic standing. The same information is provided on students who were not enrolled in remedial/developmental courses. A state summary shows, by admission test score ranges, the success rates of students required to take remedial courses, as well as those of students who went directly into the regular college curriculum.

Table 5
COLLEGE-READINESS
REPORTING PROGRAMS,
SREB STATES, 1988

	Established by	Institutions Involved	Type of Reporting
Florida	Legislative Mandate	All Public Colleges/Universities	Placement and Performance
Georgia	System Procedure	All Public Colleges/Universities	Placement and Performance
Louisiana	Legislative Mandate	All Public Colleges/Universities	Placement and Performance
Maryland	System Procedure	State Universities and Colleges	Performance
North Carolina	University Initiative	University of North Carolina System	Under Development
South Carolina	Legislative Mandate	All Colleges/ Universities	Performance
Tennessee			
Board of Regents	Board Policy	University/Community College System	Placement
University of Tennessee	System Procedure	University of Tennessee System	Placement and Performance
Texas	Legislative Mandate	All Public Colleges/Universities	Placement and Performance

SOURCE: "Reporting to High Schools on Students' Readiness for College: An Idea Worth Developing," *Regional Spotlight*, Vol. XV, No. 3, Southern Regional Education Board, June 1988.

MONITORING PROGRESS TOWARD THE GOAL

The five indicators of progress toward improved college readiness identified in SREB's *Goals for Education* focus on the high school and early college years of the "educational pipeline." As states act to prepare more of their young people for college, and thereby reduce differences in levels of educational attainment and achievement between the white and minority populations, it will be important to develop systems for monitoring these or similar indicators.

Ideally, such systems would track students from the time they enter the school system through graduation and into postsecondary institutions and the labor force.

Among the SREB states, only Florida has a statewide system that monitors the progress of students from the time they begin their formal schooling until they graduate from high school.

The Florida system can track students when they transfer from one district to another, provide enrollment and dropout data by race and sex, and identify how many students, by race, sex, and grade level, are enrolled in different curricula and courses. Other states compile some of the same data at the state level but cannot produce summaries of the progress of individual students through the system.

Several states can furnish partial answers to some of the questions posed earlier. Seven SREB states (Alabama, Florida, Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, Oklahoma, and Texas) have data on enrollment in each grade by race and sex. Only Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina are able to provide information on the number and percent of high school graduates by the type of curricula they complete. The absence of this

information may be due to the lack of a statewide definition for a "college preparatory" or "academic" curricula.

All SREB states except Georgia and Maryland know enrollment totals in courses or subject area. However, in only one state are such data available by ethnic group. This means, for example, that only one state knows how many black, white, Hispanic, and other minority students are taking algebra I, a key course in any plan to attend college.

The Science and Mathematics Indicators Project being conducted by the Council of Chief State School Officers for the National Science Foundation has recommended that course enrollments in science and mathematics be reported "by student gender and race/ethnicity." Nationally, it was found that course enrollments by sex were available from 10 of the 50 states; race data on course enrollments were available from only three states.

Data from the Science and Mathematics Indicators Project, the National Assessment of Educational Progress, and the National Dropout Study should provide states with additional indicators of progress toward the goal of better prepared college students.

At the postsecondary level, most colleges and universities have systems in place that track students from entry through graduation.

For example, the Tennessee Higher Education Commission produces an annual report on student graduation rates at all public institutions in Tennessee. The report indicates the number of students, by race, who graduated from the institution they entered or from another public institution in Tennessee within six years. Specific data for institutions are included in the report.

The University of North Carolina system has been collecting and reporting data on student

retention, attrition, and graduation rates by race and sex from each of its 16 senior institutions since 1977.

To be of maximum use, however, such data should be reported to the high schools from which the students graduated. This information would provide high schools with another indication of how well prepared their students are for college.

To adequately assess gains made in doing a better job of preparing students for college and in developing a better educated and more highly skilled workforce, states will need to gather and provide more and better information by sex and minority group membership. Without this information, it will be difficult to develop and implement programs and activities that will reduce the disparities in educational attainment among different ethnic groups.

Answers to the 20 questions posed earlier will provide the short-term benchmarks by which states can measure progress toward improved readiness for college. The long-term indicator will be the levels of educational attainment of the 25-year and older population in the year 2000.

The goal of improving readiness for college does not stand alone. It is dependent on other goals. It is clear, for instance, that students who are better prepared for the first grade are more likely to be successful as they progress through elementary and secondary school and, thus, will be better prepared for college 12 years later.

Improved student achievement in elementary and secondary schools, lower school dropout rates, effective teacher education programs, and schools with improved management and productivity will all be a part of having more and better prepared high school graduates and college students.

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Jimmy D. Long, *State Representative*, Louisiana

Curtis Peterson, *State Senator*, Florida

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FOREWORD

States should strive for national, and increasingly international, standards in education. There is wide agreement among state leaders about this. All Southern Regional Education Board states have implemented educational reforms and new standards. The long-term results of these changes will determine whether there is a better future, with improved standards of living, for the citizens of this region.

But what results are expected from the new educational standards and programs?

- Have state leaders shaped the educational reforms into a vision of what they expect to accomplish?
- Do educators and government officials have ways of knowing whether they are supporting them adequately?

States that set educational goals will need to know what actions or results—what indicators of progress—will signal to citizens, educators, and government leaders that they are moving toward or reaching those goals. This report is one in a series presenting information about the “indicators of progress” for each goal in SREB’s report, *Goals for Education: Challenge 2000*. The first group also includes reports that deal with school readiness and preparing students for college. Reports looking at other goals and related indicators will appear in the future.

SREB has suggested 12 goals and specific “indicators of progress” for each. These are not the only important goals or indicators. As priorities differ, so will goals and indicators. Each of the three reports in the current series provides information on issues related to a specific goal and the set of indicators to track progress.

In this particular report information is presented that pertains to the goal of maintaining or increasing the proportion of state tax dollars for schools and colleges while emphasizing funding aimed at raising quality and productivity.

Funding for schools and colleges accounts for more than half of the state tax dollars spent in the region and the nation. Since the early 1980s most SREB states have been trying to do more in education. They are tackling stubborn problems, such as too many school dropouts—a situation which has improved little in the last two decades.

Compared to a few years ago, local schools are likely to be getting a larger share of their support from the state. Colleges are likely to be getting more of their dollars from students. And, both schools and colleges are likely to be getting less from the federal government. New state dollars are going for salaries and for programs to address specific problems. What these and other trends mean is that states which set and reach educational goals will probably be states with long-term funding plans.

Winfred L. Godwin, President
Southern Regional Education Board

BY THE YEAR 2000—

States will maintain or increase the proportion of state tax dollars for schools and colleges while emphasizing funding aimed at raising quality and productivity.

Goals for Education
CHALLENGE 2000

Indicators of progress toward maintaining or increasing the proportion of state funding for schools and colleges while emphasizing funding aimed at raising quality and productivity include—

- Providing annual financial statements to governors, legislators, and citizens on the state's success in implementing funding plans for education (statements should include "constant dollar" and percentage measures that communicate clearly);
- Agreeing at the state level on funding plans for schools and colleges that emphasize raising quality and productivity (for example, state, campus, and district leaders could earmark a specified budget percentage for special incentive awards for quality improvement);
- Evaluating the effectiveness of selected school and collegiate programs and linking the results to funding decisions;
- Establishing a state competitive grant process that assigns dollars where they will have the biggest impact on promoting specific initiatives (for example, university basic and applied research, effective school remediation programs, and dropout prevention programs).

What does it mean to have a commitment to education? For students, parents, educators, and government officials, commitment means time—time devoted to each one's role in education. Commitment also means emphasis, particularly for leaders. What leaders emphasize by words and actions can become important to everyone. But the commitment that cuts to the heart of the words and good intentions is the commitment of dollars. If the words are not reflected in how dollars are spent, the commitment to education will bring few long-term results.

Two very basic facts are important in judging a state's financial commitment to improving education. First, of the many new educational improvement efforts underway, almost all are *additions* to existing state efforts. With new educational programs added to existing ones, states are attempting to do more. Second, SREB states now trail the nation in several measures of financial investment in education. Therefore, it is difficult to imagine that in the next several years a state committed to educational improvement could spend a *smaller* share of its budget for education. Simply stated, given economic realities, states cannot spend proportionately *less* to do *more* in education.

If it is reasonable to assume that states committed to improving education cannot spend comparatively less to do more, how should that commitment be measured? Few states now systematically calculate and publicize the percentage of state tax dollars appropriated for education. Even fewer states prepare an annual financial report on education for citizens—a report, that is, which describes in a consistent style from year to year the appropriations and spending for education. If reports on spending for education are prepared only for "public relations" purposes or are inconsistent from year to year, they will not present an accurate assessment of the state's commitment to education.

Similarly the information presented may be insufficient to convey what the public needs to know about an important topic. Teachers' salaries are perhaps the best example. The public is likely to hear or read only about an "average" teacher salary for the entire state and how that average salary ranks among the 50 states. When beginning salaries are a political issue, the state minimum beginning teacher salary may receive attention. Generally, however, the public, and prospective teachers, may have very little information about

salaries and benefits for beginning teachers and for teachers with 5 years or 10 years of teaching experience; the state's contribution to teacher salaries and the local district's supplement to those salaries, if any; or the salary schedule and the fact that it may "top out" after 12 years (meaning that by age 35, most teachers could be at the top of the pay scale with raises coming only from across-the-board increases).

Educational leaders and government officials assume that the more the public knows about an important issue, in this case teachers' salaries, the more likely citizens will be to support a program that is adequate.

An annual financial statement on funding for education, therefore, should be a part of a state's

budgeting process. Education's relative share of the state budget should be known throughout the process in which the budget is debated and decided. Calling attention to education's present and proposed share of the state budget would not create a new, sophisticated budgeting technique. However, this would require citizens and elected leaders to make and defend decisions about education as a state financial priority.

A proposed format for an annual "State Report on Funding for Education" follows. A report in this or a similar format could become a respected statement that would focus public attention on education.

State Report on Funding for Education

An Annual Report to Citizens from the Governor and/or State Legislature

\$ _____ Total State General Tax Funds Appropriated (current fiscal year)

\$ _____ State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Kindergarten through Grade 12 (current fiscal year)

_____ % Percent of State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Kindergarten through Grade 12 (current fiscal year)

\$ _____ State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Kindergarten through Grade 12 (upcoming fiscal year)

_____ % Percent of State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Kindergarten through Grade 12 (upcoming fiscal year)

_____ Enrollment in Kindergarten through Grade 12 (current year)

_____ % Estimated percent change in enrollment, Kindergarten through Grade 12 (upcoming year)

\$ _____ State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Postsecondary Education (current fiscal year)

_____ % Percent of State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Postsecondary Education (current fiscal year)

§ _____ State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Postsecondary Education
(upcoming fiscal year)

_____ % Percent of State General Tax Funds Appropriated for Postsecondary
Education (upcoming fiscal year)

_____ Enrollment in Postsecondary Education (current year)

_____ % Estimated percent change in Enrollment in Postsecondary Education
(upcoming year)

Percent of Revenues for Kindergarten through Grade 12 from state, local, and federal
sources as reported to the U.S. Department of Education for the three most recent years
on which information is available.

Year	State	Local	Federal
19 _____	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
19 _____	_____	_____	_____
19 _____	_____	_____	_____

Percent of Revenues for Postsecondary Education from various sources for the three
most recent years on which information is reported to the U.S. Department of Education.
Tuition and fees, state (and local) appropriations, and government contracts and grants
may be among the sources included.

Year	Tuition and Fees	Appropriations	Government Grants and Contracts
	State	Local	
19 _____	_____ %	_____ %	_____ %
19 _____	_____	_____	_____
19 _____	_____	_____	_____

Funding for Special Initiatives

Dollars are increasingly being earmarked in the state budget for special initiatives,
many of which are efforts to address long-term problems that require long-term com-
mitments. Sometimes these initiatives seem sporadic or decided on an *ad hoc* basis.
The annual financial report to citizens on funding for education should track these
initiatives and thereby stress the importance of staying the course on planned, long-
term programs.

The information in this proposed financial
report on education is, or could be, available.
With the emphasis on *annual comparisons*
within the state, it is not necessary that states
solve the problems of making the information
comparable among states.

Financial information relating to revenues for
elementary, secondary, and postsecondary edu-
cation is compiled by regional and national

organizations from data reported by state agen-
cies. Tables 1 and 2 illustrate some of the
information currently available.

States, of course, are in the best position to
apply a consistent measure to their financial com-
mitment to education. The apparent wide varia-
tion among states in the percentage of state tax
dollars going for public schools reflects in part
different arrangements among state and local

Table 1
SOURCES OF REVENUES FOR
PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND
SECONDARY SCHOOLS,
FISCAL YEAR 1987

	Percentage Distribution Within the State		
	State Funds	Local Funds	Federal Funds
Alabama	66.3	21.4	11.7
Arkansas	54.8	33.5	11.5
Florida	54.2	38.6	7.2
Georgia	59.7	33.2	7.1
Kentucky	64.5	23.8	11.6
Louisiana	55.1	33.4	11.5
Maryland	38.5	56.4	5.1
Mississippi	65.2	24.3	10.5
North Carolina	66.0	26.0	7.9
Oklahoma	63.5	28.1	5.6
South Carolina	56.0	34.0	8.9
Tennessee	44.5	44.4	11.1
Texas	47.1	45.5	7.1
Virginia	47.2	46.9	5.9
West Virginia	69.8	22.6	7.5

NOTE: State percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding and to exclusion of funds from "intermediate" sources (generally special grants which may be from a variety of sources), which accounted for 0.6 percent in Alabama, 0.2 percent in Arkansas, 2.8 percent in Oklahoma, 1.2 percent in South Carolina, and 0.3 percent in Texas.

SOURCES: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, special tabulation from the Common Core of Data, 1986-87, final tabulations, and Virginia Department of Education.

governments. For example, Maryland, with the highest per capita income among the SREB states, spends the smallest share of state tax dollars for elementary-secondary education. It is also the only SREB state in which local taxes provide for more than one-half of school funds. Mississippi and West Virginia, with the lowest per capita incomes in the region, are near the top in the percentages of state tax dollars going to elementary-secondary education. Local taxes in these states account for comparatively few dollars for education.

These differences in state and local funding arrangements, combined with the widely varying distribution of wealth among local school districts, continue as a major education funding problem. In the 1980s, legal challenges claiming that state funding arrangements for education are inequitable have been lodged in most SREB states. To date there is little evidence in any state that this problem has been "solved." Underlying SREB's *Goals for Education* is the assertion that educational disparities must be reduced if states are to significantly improve educational levels and economic well-being. Equitable funding for schools is a part of the solution for educational disparities, but states are likely to find an evolving solution, not a final solution, for this problem. Governors and legislators are faced with balancing the equitable funding issues and the overall emphasis on improving both schools and colleges.

CURRENT FACTS ABOUT FUNDING FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

One fact about school funding is true for all SREB states (and for every state except Alaska):

Federal funds make up a smaller part of school budgets now than at the beginning of the 1980s.

Nationally the decline has resulted in a drop of about one-third (from 9.3 percent federal funds in 1980 to 6.4 percent). In several SREB states—Georgia, Mississippi, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Virginia—the decline has dropped the level of federal funding to about one-half of the 1980 percentage.

A related fact on school funding is true for most SREB states:

Schools depend more on state funds now than in 1980.

The decline in federal funds for the schools has usually not been offset by increased local tax dollars. Since 1980, the percentage of funds from local sources has decreased, or increased by less than one percentage point, in half of the SREB states. As a result, state dollars account for a larger share of school budgets in three-fourths of the SREB states.

Table 2
STATE APPROPRIATIONS
FOR HIGHER EDUCATION AS
A PERCENT OF STATE TAXES

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
United States	14.0	14.0	14.1	14.1	13.1	13.2	13.4	13.1
SREB States	16.0	15.9	16.6	17.0	16.3	15.7	16.0	15.6
Alabama	20.3	19.9	17.2	17.4	15.2	17.2	21.1	17.3
Arkansas	14.6	15.8	14.6	14.8	12.8	14.3	16.4	14.5
Florida	13.5	13.3	14.4	14.6	13.1	12.3	12.4	13.0
Georgia	14.1	14.3	15.2	14.9	14.2	13.5	13.6	13.4
Kentucky	14.0	13.5	13.6	14.1	14.3	13.5	13.5	13.0
Louisiana	13.8	14.2	14.5	16.5	16.0	14.4	14.9	15.7
Maryland	11.7	12.4	12.1	12.5	11.2	11.3	11.4	11.0
Mississippi	18.6	18.7	20.6	19.3	19.9	18.9	19.5	16.8
North Carolina	18.0	19.3	20.0	19.7	18.7	18.5	19.3	18.8
Oklahoma	12.9	12.1	12.0	14.6	14.6	12.3	14.4	14.4
South Carolina	19.1	18.9	18.4	17.1	16.5	16.5	17.3	16.5
Tennessee	16.9	17.3	16.6	16.7	16.1	16.5	16.8	16.9
Texas	19.5	17.9	20.9	22.6	23.2	20.5	19.8	19.1
Virginia	16.2	16.8	16.8	16.6	15.2	16.0	15.9	16.3
West Virginia	13.0	13.4	13.1	13.1	11.6	11.9	12.6	13.2

NOTE: The amounts include funds for health programs, state scholarship and other financial aid programs, higher education coordinating or governing boards, and funds for private higher education students and institutions. The amounts reported exclude dollars for capital outlay and debt service.

SOURCES: M.M. Chambers and Edward R. Hines, *Appropriations of State Tax Funds for Operating Expenses of Higher Education* and U.S. Bureau of the Census, *State Government Finances*, annual reports.

For higher education funding several facts are true for the majority of SREB states:

State appropriations account for nearly one-half of higher education funds, but the share of higher education's budget coming from state tax funds has been declining in the 1980s.

In a majority of the SREB states the percentage of the state budget appropriated for higher education also has been declining in the 1980s. Based on published reports and legislative actions in 1988 and 1989:

It appears that every SREB state is now spending a smaller share of its budget for higher education than earlier in the 1980s.

Tuition and fees have been increasing more rapidly than have the consumer price index and state appropriations. Therefore:

In most SREB states students are now paying a larger share of the higher education budget than in 1980.

These trends and sluggish state economies (six SREB states were among the ten states with the highest unemployment at the beginning of 1989) have had particular impact on educational salaries. Nearly three-fourths of the dollars for education are for personnel. In general, teachers' salaries have fared better than faculty salaries in the 1980s, but in only a few states has the progress for either been dramatic (most notably Virginia).

States are attempting to do more in education and they face many stubborn problems on which little progress has been made (school dropouts and below-average college attendance being cases in point). This should be rationale enough to maintain or increase the proportion of state tax dollars for schools and colleges.

A NEW TREND IN FUTURE FUNDING FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

How much money is spent for education is important, but so is *how* the money is spent. It is unlikely that state officials will support exceptional funding increases for schools and colleges unless this funding is linked in convincing ways to specific efforts to raise quality and productivity.

Funding trends in higher education already show this. New dollars for higher education in the 1980s, other than those for faculty salary increases, have often been earmarked for specific purposes—primarily for centers of excellence, endowed chairs, targeted research, and instructional equipment. A similar trend is emerging for the schools. Teacher salary increases have accounted for much of the new funding for the schools. Most other new dollars have been allocated for teacher and school incentives, dropout prevention, and other specific efforts.

Too often there is no long-term plan for targeting funds for programs specially designed to solve specific problems or take advantage of unique opportunities. Legislators and governors tend to favor earmarking funds for specific programs, but the appropriations may be made on a sporadic or ad hoc basis. Long-term funding plans that emphasize raising quality and productivity are unique because there are so few.

For several years, including years when funding was at 100 percent of the formula amount, Georgia's governor and legislature have earmarked

a sum equal to one percent of the University System budget for special quality improvement efforts.

The Tennessee Higher Education Performance Funding process began as a one percent budget incentive. Now, up to five percent of total state funding for higher education can be allocated based on performance measures.

The school and teacher incentive programs in Florida, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas reflect state funding plans that are based on multi-year plans. The Texas Advanced Research and Advanced Technology Programs allocate substantial funds, in competitive grants, for well defined areas. The programs provide significant incentives for Texas faculty and universities. Competitive grants awarded in the Texas programs are intended to assign dollars where they will have the greatest impact on promoting specific initiatives

States are attempting to do more to improve education. This is a compelling argument for educational funding. But the message from budget actions of the 1980s is that it may take programs aimed at solving special problems and capitalizing on opportunities, and more of them, to significantly increase the proportion of state tax dollars for schools and colleges.